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> "*Il est plus aisé d'être sage pour les autres que pour soi même.*"
>
> La Rochefoucault.

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Page 63. l. 13. for 'objects,' r. *object.*

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JANUARY, 1817.

Art. I. *Journal of a Tour in Germany, Sweden, Russia, Poland,* during the Years 1813 and 1814. By J. T. James, Esq. Student of Christ Church, Oxford. 4to. pp. 540. 3l. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1816.

An intimation of a book of travels from the pen of a *student* is little calculated to excite expectation, or to inspire confidence: but the present journal would reflect no discredit on the maturest years, and is obviously the production of a refined taste and a highly cultivated understanding. Of the many valuable statements and sentiments which the author has crowded into its composition, and of which we can convey but a very inadequate representation, some have, no doubt, been anticipated by Pallas, Coxe, Tooke, Clarke, Thomson, and other travellers in the north of Europe; while the harrowing narrative of Labaume has considerably diminished the interest with which we pesuse the numerous striking allusions to recent military events, intimately connected with the peace and permanency of civilized society. Yet most of Mr. James's details appear to be the result of personal and diligent observation, conducted under the guidance of candour and discrimination; some of them, we believe, are recorded for the first time in the English language; and all of them are communicated in his own able and impressive manner. During the former part of his journey, he enjoyed the society of Sir James Milles Riddell, and, during the latter, that of W. Macmichael, M. B. Radcliffe-travelling Fellow of the University of Oxford. To the Hon. Heneage Legge he acknowleges his obligations for several etchings, and to Robert Wm. Hay, Esq. of the Admiralty, for a very entertaining account of his stay at Tulchyzn, inserted in the last section. — The plates, eighteen in number, form desirable embellishments of the work; and they would not have been the less acceptable if they had been accompanied by a map of the countries traversed and described.

Of the five sections contained in this volume, the first includes the route from Gottenburg, by the way of Berlin, to

Stralsund. After their arrival at Gottenburg, the travellers lost no time in visiting the falls and canal at Trolhättan. On their way to Marstrand, they remarked huge blocks of stone, ranged in a somewhat circular form, and others disposed more irregularly. Such rude remains of an untutored state of society, which are not uncommon in Sweden, are traditionally ascribed to the modes of administering justice in antient times; but the common people regard them as memorials of battles, denoting the spots on which heroes were interred; and they venerate them, accordingly, with superstitious awe.

'The heat of the weather was now excessive, the mercury rising even to 90° of Fahrenheit's scale in the shade, and the days were tediously lengthened: though we rose early in the morning, it appeared as if we had reached the mid-day, and the ruddy beams of the setting sun were seen to gild the atmosphere until the latest hour of the night.

'A singular effect during this season is observable in the landscape: the distant objects, when the sun is set, or concealed behind a cloud, assume a peculiarly heavy colourless aspect, and seem to an eye accustomed to English scenery, as the phrase is, not quite in keeping: a correspondent darkness may be remarked in many of the best Swedish engravings of country scenery, as well as in the beautiful pictures of Falcrantz, who has pourtrayed nature faithfully as he saw it. The phenomenon may perhaps arise from a greater condensation of the atmospheric moisture near the ground, in these northern latitudes, where the mean temperature of the earth is lowest: the particles in a semi-opake state impede the transmission of the coloured rays; the pure colour, therefore, which is always broken down by a white tinge of haze where the particles are illuminated and reflect the ray of the sun, becomes in its absence obscured by a dark negative shade of black. A contrary effect takes place in the glowing climate of Italy, where the vapours of the atmosphere are more completely held in solution: the tints and hues of distant objects are both bright and clear, and even the parts in shade enlivened by the most brilliant reflections.'

On the 16th of July, the tourists proceeded southwards, by Helsinburg and Lund; noting in their progress the larger and fairer proportions of the inhabitants, originating probably in the intermixture of Danes, German Lutherans, and emigrant Scotish farmers. In Lund, the two most prominent objects are the University and the Cathedral. The erection of the latter is referred to the year 1020; and its style accords with that of the Norman architecture of England. — The Bishop's annual revenues are about 225l., 'a comfortable episcopal income in this land of cheapness.' — Malmo, Ystadt, and Rostock, furnish no remarks that need detain us. — In the state of Mecklenburg, the peasants are still attached to the glebe: but their condition is comparatively easy and happy, from the indirect influence of public opinion, created by the refinement of manners and the progress of civilization.

In Brandenburg, the circumstances most adverse to agricultural improvements are the want of inclosures, and the improvident tenure of land; one half of an estate being cultivated for the subsistence of the tenant and his family, and the other to fill the granaries of the landlord. — Near Hohenzieritz, the havoc and desolation of warfare became too manifest. 'Filled with these dreary images,' says the author, 'we drew near the border of a forest, where our attention was arrested by a monument erected to the memory of the late Queen. It was here, while on her journey, she was seized with that inflammatory complaint, whose violence baffled all attempts at relief, and in a few hours terminated her existence in a neighbouring cottage. During the present eventful epoch, we needed not to call in aid the solemn character of this sequestered spot to heighten those impressions, chivalrous as well as melancholy, which a reflection upon the fate and virtues, the sad reverses and premature death of this beautiful and amiable Princess, will never fail to excite in every honourable and feeling mind. We travelled through the gloomy forest in silence, and with sensations hardly to be exceeded by the gallantry and loyalty of a Prussian bosom.'

The elegance and regularity of the streets of Berlin have been often celebrated, but Mr. James appears to have directed his attention and reflections to some of its principal manufactures, as those of porcelain, silk, cotton, carpets, bronze, &c. 'At the iron-foundery they have acquired an art of casting small ware articles which, I believe, is peculiar to themselves; the medallions, after the antique cameos and intaglios, the medals of Lord Wellington, run upon an impression of the original cast at London in silver, as also the iron-cross for the campaign of 1813, on which they were now employed, may be cited as fair examples; their sharpness and precision of form are equal to what might be effected in the most ductile metals: the work when finished is rubbed over with burnt porcelain earth, receiving a rich hue of jet, and for ornamental trinkets is generally set in silver or gold. It may be supposed that the practice of the founders, with regard to their superiority in this branch, is kept secret; but I have been told that the iron is fused with a small quantity of antimony, and the furnaces used for this purpose are small and low.'

The collection of minerals has been lately enriched by the treasures of Humboldt, who refused his precious cabinet to the repeated solicitations of Bonaparte, although the restoration of the estates, which he had lost in the Prussian war, was proffered in exchange.

Mr. James exhibits in animated and glowing language the feelings of patriotic enthusiasm and devotedness which, at this period, pervaded the Prussian dominions: but a single anecdote is often more eloquent and convincing than pages of the finest declamation. 'One trait of patriotism in the sex well deserves to be recorded: the house of a poor woman having caught fire from the Prussian bombs, her neighbours gathered around her in haste, and endeavoured with officious earnestness to extinguish the flames. Hold, said she, my friends, do you not see our countrymen have set it on fire themselves? do you not understand that, if they cannot enjoy the town, at least the French shall not? let it burn, let it burn! Rostopchin could have done no more.' Of the portentous military movements which now occurred in the neighbourhood of Berlin, the recollection is still too recent to require that we should accompany the author in his recital of them.

On taking leave of Berlin, Mr. James directed his course by Prentzlaw, Paisewalde, Anclam, and Griefswalde, to Stralsund, where military and commercial bustle again prevailed.

The mineralogical aspect of the regions included in this portion of the travels seems to have presented little variety; the soil of extended tracts of plain being generally characterized by a reddish sand, arising from the partial decomposition of large boulders of gneiss or granite, intersected by veins of quartz. The coast of Pomerania grows less sandy, as the traveller approaches the sea: but the cliffs on the north of Rugen are of white sand, lying under a thick crust of mould. These heights may be regarded as a connecting link between two long ranges of hills, on the opposite coasts of Sweden and Germany.

The second section conveys us from Ystadt to Carlscrona, Calmar, Ionköping, Linköping, Stockholm, Upsala, the mines of Dannemora, Griselham, and over the Gulf of Finland, on the ice.

Carlsham, which is environed by romantic scenery, is described as hanging 'like a nest upon the cliffs.' Carlscrona, the chief naval arsenal of Sweden, is provided with covered docks excavated from the solid rock, and greatly superior to the covered slips at Venice. Here, the traveller takes occasion to combat the supposed subsidence of the Baltic; an hypothesis which seems to have originated in the precipitate generalization of a few partial and local changes, produced by temporary causes. The gold of the Adefors mine is found in small grains, imbedded in a rock of mica-slate, which is intersected by veins of quartz and pyritous matter. When this matrix is broken down, and reduced to powder, the gold is obtained by washing, but scarcely in a sufficient quantity to repay the expence of working.

The beautiful expanse of Lake Wettern, and the scattered town of Ionköping, stretching across the head of it, delightfully relieved the monotony of gloomy forests. The town of Linköping also suggests some interesting remarks.—'Among the curiosities in the library are preserved some cups curiously wrought of wood thin as paper, and enclosed one within the other to the number of an hundred. These samples of ingenuity are from the lathe of General Steinbock, the hero of Helsingburg; who, after a long career of glory, was made prisoner at Toningen, and obliged to have recourse to these mechanical labours to soothe the tedium of his long confinement in a Danish prison, for (shame to an ungrateful nation!) when the ransom demanded was only 9000 dollars the gallant General passed the remainder of his life in captivity.'

Notwithstanding the poverty which generally prevails in Sweden, the government is by no means negligent of the maintenance and education of the poor cottagers:

'Parochial schools are universally kept up, under the salutary provisions of a law of Gustavus III.; and there are few among the peasants but what are able both to read and write. With regard to their maintenance, when in distress, constant parochial aid is afforded, and a poor-house supported in every parish, at the expense of a light rate upon the property of the wealthier inhabitants. The funds, moreover, arising from the charity-boxes for gratuitous donations, are in part destined to the same benevolent purpose; a distribution of their receipts is made to a certain number of out-pensioners, as well as the inmates of the poor-house, who are generally portioned in four classes; the sick, the aged, those who have large families, and those who are helpless from their state of extreme poverty.

'The honesty of the Swedes is as proverbial as that of the Highlanders of Scotland, a nation whom they resemble in many particulars; neither are these charity-boxes, though frequently placed in the most exposed situations on the road-side, ever fraudulently opened; nor is any other unguarded property, public or private, liable to depredation from the hand of the harmless rustic.

'Of other moral qualities I cannot say how large the catalogue may be, but they indisputably possess in a high degree that feeling of rude pride (I had almost said sulkiness) which distinguishes the manners of the lower class of people under a free government: occasionally, however, higher traits of mind are displayed, and those of a nature to reflect infinite credit on the national character. Hokanson was a peasant of the province of Blekingen, whose name for probity and honour had procured his return to eight successive meetings of the diet, in most of which he received the appointment of orator or speaker to his house. He was so greatly respected, and regarded with such esteem, that the King Adolphus Frederic thought it proper to pay him a visit on passing through the district, and even condescended to partake of his cottage-cheer. During his abode at Stockholm, he was much caressed by the court; and the Queen, amongst others who sent him presents, gave him a very handsome robe of velvet. On the following day her Majesty happened to meet Hokanson in the streets, and seeing him in his usual dress, she asked, with an air of surprise, whether he had received her gift? — "Yes," said he, (opening his coat and exhibiting the velvet sown on the lining,) "I hold it here next my heart, but no shew of splendor or finery shall ever induce me to forget my real situation, or to forego the title in which I glory, of a free peasant of Sweden." '

Norköping has a manufacture of broad-cloth, and a secular convent for the daughters of noblemen. In this seminary, in consideration of a small sum paid at her birth, a girl is secure of a retreat and provision for life: but she is, at the same time, permitted to frequent society, and may, with the approbation of her superior, contract marriage.

Mr. James's sketch of Stockholm nearly coincides with those of prior tourists: but it also furnishes us with cursory yet interesting notices of the present state of the fine arts in this northern metropolis. With respect to music, the Italian style unfortunately prevails over that of the old national airs, in which excellence was far more easily attainable. In efforts purely imitative, the Swedish painters discover considerable talents; and Falcrantz, who is in a great measure self-taught, may be pronounced their first landscape-painter. Sergel, their most eminent sculptor, is said to manifest much taste and fidelity, but is perhaps somewhat deficient in warmth of expression. Among their men of science, we find honourable mention made of Professors Berzelius and Schwartz. In the cabinet of Natural History belonging to the latter,

' Was a cake from Dalecarlia, made of the bark of trees: the birch is the most common in use, while that of the pine is held luxurious and dainty fare; but to procure a little rye-flour and add it to this wretched mixture, is an happiness that falls to the lot of few indeed. The inner bark or parenchyma is applied to this purpose; it is simply macerated in water, ground up, and formed into cakes of the consistence of a wafer; their taste is slightly bitter, but seemed, I thought, by no means less palatable than the coarse leaven bread of rye made with old sour yeast, which generally may be called the "staff of life" even throughout the more fertile parts of Sweden.

'The use of so poor a diet in a climate that requires the most nutritious regimen is attended with its inconveniences; the rustic peasants in general, though large and bony, are of a spare habit, and on the smallest alteration or improvement of their food, are subjected to severe attacks of plethora. Many of these poor creatures do not survive their first visit to Stockholm, where, when they are ill of a surfeit, their disease is usually called the *Dalecarlian malady*, from its prevalence among that people: this complaint, indeed, seizes upon them in so great numbers, as to give an idea to the vulgar of its being contagious, and one frequently hears, as the phrase is, that it is "going about."

'A remarkable instance occurred in 1788, when the Jemtland regiment of militia was ordered to do duty in the capital: the men had not long been settled in their quarters before a violent mortality broke out, and increased to so alarming an extent, that enquiry became necessary. After due attention to the subject, a medical report was prepared, which attributed the mischief entirely to the nature of the soldiers' food; its quality, though they partook of no higher luxuries than wheaten bread and a little meat, was yet too strong and nutritious for stomachs accustomed to other fare; and a coarser aliment in consequence prescribed. An inferior bread was then baked for the regiment, adulterated to the requisite degree of meagreness and indigestibility, and a strict attention enforced to the poverty of the rest of their diet. Upon this the stomachs of that hardy race soon regained their former tone; the number of deaths gradually diminished, and in a few weeks the sick list was entirely clear.'

In the sequel, we have some very pertinent observations on the state of agriculture, trade, population, and the national character; and the Crown Prince likewise figures in a conspicuous and advantageous point of view. To these important topics of discussion, succeeds a brief enumeration of the leading articles of the constitution of Sweden, as revised in 1811.

We are tempted to extract the ensuing passage, notwithstanding its length, both because it forcibly delineates some of the most striking effects of a Swedish winter, and because it differs, in several respects, from the accounts of preceding writers. The curious reader will compare it with the view which is afterward given of the cold at St. Petersburg:

'*Jan.* 25. 1814.—At this time the cold was excessive, generally below 20°, and on the 21st day of this month the mercury stood at 33° of Celsius's * scale below freezing point, or 28° below zero of Fahrenheit. It is impossible to recount all the horrors of such a season: no example had occurred during the last sixty years of one so severe. The peasants attending the market came with

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'* This is universally used in Sweden, being the same with the centigrade scale of Paris, freezing point 1, boiling point 100.'

their faces, arms, and legs, frozen; the soldiers on guard, though relieved every hour, were often taken up in the same condition; and one, it was said, had been found dead at his post. Besides the miserable cases of persons frost-bitten that daily thronged the hospitals, several deaths took place among those who were out of the way of immediate assistance. A poor woman, to mention one instance, being ignorant of the unusual inclemency of this morning, had gone early to her usual occupation of washing on the river side; scarce half an hour elapsed before we saw her on her return borne under our windows to her home a lifeless corpse.

'It will be well to observe, that the extraordinary increase of cold is not directly made known by symptoms such as might be expected; no external sensation will enable any person to form an estimate of its comparative rigour. The action of a temperature such as the above is not like the nipping of a frost in England, but a general extension of its baneful influence is felt over the whole body, its access being so gradual that, for several minutes after leaving a warm room, the air seems to make little or no impression: an attempt, however, to endure it for even a quarter of an hour, unless extraordinarily well wrapped up in fur or wadded clothing, would be attended with the highest degree of danger. Exercise alone is totally unable to keep up the necessary vital warmth: the linen becoming moist is instantly converted to a covering of ice, and the animal heat escapes as fast as it is excited.

'Even with the adoption of every possible precaution, its injurious effects will sometimes manifest themselves. A soreness in breathing, an oppressive head-ach, a want of sense in the extremities, and a stiffness in the thighs, are the first symptoms which give the stranger warning to seek again the timely shelter of his house.

'Frequently did we remark the dead white patch on the cheek, the ears, or the noses of the lower class, who were moderately provided in point of clothing; and to guard against such contingencies, it was usual to see many of the well-furred gentry with the upper part of their faces in masks, with coverings applied to their ears, and applying their fingers with incessant care to every part of their visages in succession: or sometimes, which is the best preservative for travelling, their skins, where exposed, were greased with oil. Salutations in the street are short; scarce a word or an answer; and the greatest assemblage of people (for the groups are seldom numerous) can be compared only to a meeting at a deaf and dumb asylum. A north-east wind, during such weather as this, is a chill blast of death that exceeds in horror any other curse of heaven.

'It is not without reason that so much care is used to prevent the face from being taken by the frost, for as the skin is destroyed by its action, a blemish like the sore of a burn serves to recal the memory of the accident during the whole of the succeeding summer. As to the general effects of the constant cold on the body, I cannot help remarking that the women of all classes both here and as I afterwards observed in Russia, seem to be much less affected than the men. It may be that they seldom stay out of doors for so great a length of time as the other sex, but it is certainly true that the influence of the climate on the body varies much in degree upon different habits; it is most commonly manifested in a determination of blood to the head, and a tendency to lethargy, but this is by no means universal.

'The extreme accumulation of animal electricity in the frame is also remarkable; the natural moisture necessary to carry it off not having been produced during the day, it is visibly discharged in great quantities at night on undressing in a warm room.

'The power of the constitution to bear against cold, contrary to vulgar ideas, is weakened gradually more and more by endurance; the frame is enervated, in artificial life at least, and a stranger, instead of growing more hardy and secure, braves the sharpness of the first winter with much greater success than he can attempt a second year. In the course of the first spring, indeed, after his arrival, he feels infinitely more sensible of its injury than he had been of a similar temperature in the preceding autumn.

'Several striking natural phenomena attend this season. The smoke seems to ascend from the chimney tops a dense compact cloud, and the atmosphere itself, though not obscure, assumes a heavy aspect, particularly observable at the rising and setting of the sun. Some signs moreover appear to indicate to a certain extent the *quantum* of cold: scarcely has the thermometer fallen to 20° — (Celsius), or 4° below the zero of Fahrenheit's scale, when the cellars of the houses emit a strong vapour to the streets; and all the streams of water, whose rapidity is sufficient to check congelation, give out in similar way a powerful steam during day and night from their surface. It was an extraordinary spectacle to see the bridge at Stockholm, through which the waters of the Mælar were discharged, constantly enveloped during the month in a thick exhalation, as if rising from boiling water. *

'This effect admits of an easy explanation: a perpetual supply of water takes place from under the ice, great part of which (since the freezing of its surface) has reassumed a higher degree of temperature from the warmth of the earth; the interchange of

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'* About five years ago an extraordinary circumstance (not wholly unconnected with the above statement) took place: it was during an intense frost (thermom. 24 —) that a part of the ice at the mouth of one of the basons connected with the Mælar (called Clara Sjon) thawed and gave way, in consequence of which several lives were lost. The cause of the accident is thus explained: a westerly wind had carried off the water of the sea from the coast, and of course drained it partially from these creeks; its place was supplied by a more than usual draught from above, and in the disturbance that ensued some water of a higher temperature was brought in contact with the ice that covered this outlet of the creek, and caused its dissolution.'

particles occurring in the stream, because they are in this way possessed of a different quantity of heat, prevents the whole from being cooled down to the point necessary for congelation: the declivity continually keeps up the effect; and so great a difference existing between the temperature of the air and that of the water will occasion steam * to be given out from its surface at any point of the thermometer.

'The wolves at this time, severely pressed by famine, lost their usual dread of man, and prowled fearlessly on the roads, following the track of the carriages, to a great distance. In one or two instances they were known to venture, during the night, into the villages in search of prey.

'All communication with England, through the port of Gottenburg, was entirely cut off; the packet-boat came in sight, but was inaccessible from the regions of broken ice that encircled the coast: an hundred guineas were offered to any one that would undertake the perilous office of fetching the mails ashore, and in vain.

'The roads by land also were blocked up for several days: we had some difficulty to ascertain the period of their being opened, when the arrival of some travellers from Petersburg removed all uncertainty on that score, bringing also with them the agreeable intelligence that the Haff, the straight separating Sweden from the Aland Islands, was entirely frozen over. This circumstance determined us instantly to prepare for our journey, as, besides the novelty of passing over a sea of ice, it afforded us the only means of avoiding a disagreeable detour of 1400 miles by Tornea, in order to prosecute our route to the Russian capital.'

Upsala, and its University, naturally give rise to some interesting pages. The incorporated Professors of the University amount to twenty-two, and the yearly salary of each may be averaged at 300l., 'a comfortable and easy subsistence in Sweden.' The system of education is carried on by free public lectures; and the ordinary number of students is about five hundred. Though the lecture-room of Linné happened to be occupied by an exhibitor of *fantoccini*, we are assured that a taste for the pursuits of natural history is still cultivated at Upsala; and that Professor Thunberg, the celebrated traveller and botanist, filled the chair of Rector of the University. — We are next furnished with some hints relative to the religious character of the Swedes, and the tenets of Swedenborg.

'* Fogs and falling weather sometimes occurred, though not when the cold was in extreme; at that time the sky was always clear and cloudless; an example, perhaps, to be applied to the ingenious theory of the radiation of heat.'

The mines of Dannemora are depicted as a scene of fearful wonder, but their geological relations are wholly overlooked. Since the adoption of coke in the English furnaces, the produce of these mines has been considerably reduced. The superior quality of the ore at the Söderfors foundery admits the forging of anchors immediately from the pig-iron, and is said to impart to them both lightness and strength. Mr. James's view of the mineralogy of Sweden is avowedly abridged from a public lecture delivered by Hisinger before the Academy of Sciences at Stockholm; a document which, though valuable in various respects, is unsusceptible of farther compression; but we regret this circumstance the less, because, in our account of Thomson's Travels in Sweden, we had frequent opportunities of adverting to the same subject. (See our Numbers for October and November 1813, pp. 113. 238.)

We proceed, therefore, to the third section; which comprizes the route from the Aland Islands to Petersburg, with a great variety of miscellaneous observations relative to Russia; and to the fortunes of a campaign which will be long memorable for brilliant deeds of patriotism, and for that train of extensive disaster and disgrace which, sooner or later, overtakes the schemes of unprincipled ambition.

The passage among the islands, over the ice, occupied four days, when the party again set foot on the continent, and proceeded to Abo. Here the University and the Cathedral are the principal objects which solicit attention.

'On Sunday,' says the journalist, 'we attended divine service in the Lutheran church, for this is the prevalent religion here as in Sweden: the officiating minister, previous to his concluding prayer, read out to us with an audible voice a list of the births, deaths, and marriages of the preceding week, as I believe is customary in that religion. His succeeding catalogue somewhat surprised us: he recounted the sales of houses made, or about to be made, and then added the directions of the unclaimed letters now lying at the post-office, with some other notices of a similar description: it is a singular practice, but nevertheless one that is infinitely useful in such a country as Finland, and I must add, in compliment to the piety of the Fins, that certainly no other mode of publication would have given these matters an equal chance of notoriety.

'The solemnization of marriages takes place only once a year, and that on a fixed day in the teeming autumn. Before this time arrives, the expectant lover is not permitted, by the custom of the land, to pay his addresses in person to the object of his wishes; his offer is made by sending a piece of money, that is accepted or not as the fair one is inclined to approve or reject his suit: but both the conveyance of this token of love and the whole of the after-ceremonials of courtship are carried on through the intervention of some old woman of the village, whose occupation and calling may seem enviable to some bustling gentlewomen in other countries, being that of a regularly established match-maker.'

The route through part of Finland, by Helsingfors, Frederickham, &c. proved unavoidably dreary, from the solitude of the country, and the frequency of rocks, hills, frozen lakes, and fir-forests, wrapt in snow: but the Russian aspect of Wyborg, with its white and gaudy houses, green roofs, and cupolas, for a moment varied this barren and chilling sameness. On quitting its environs, however, the gay and animated picture again vanished, and gave way to rocks, forests, and indefinite regions of snow. At length, on descending the last of the Finnish hills into the woody plains of Ingria, the travellers descried the frozen sea, and the spires and domes of Petersburg. The splendour and magnificence of this Imperial metropolis seem to have greatly exceeded the author's expectations: but its public buildings have been so often described, and of late so admirably delineated in a set of sumptuous engravings, that we conceive it would be superfluous for us to particularize them.

When forming our estimate of the state of civilization among the Russian grandees, and of the national character in general, we should do well to bear in mind the following candid and considerate remarks:

'Having here alluded to the progress of civilization, I must add, that it is not intended to convey any undue satire upon the Russian people, who have been already calumniated more than enough, both by English and French writers. General conclusions have been drawn from particular instances of misconduct or meanness; habits common to all the continent have been quoted as peculiar to them alone; and manners and usages that really were their own, and from that circumstance deserved a milder judgment, have been exaggerated into heinous crimes, with the most indecent acrimony. In other instances different ranks have been confounded, and sketches of high life given by those who appear seldom to have mixed with even the better classes of society; while facts which only appeared in a bad light from the temporary irritation of the traveller's mind have been misquoted and applied as evidences of the real Russian character; although nothing could be more out of place than the idea of *generalizing* on the subject.

'Besides this, allowances are to be made for the unintentional errors which even the most accurate observer is liable to make in consequence of the singular spectacle which the inhabitants of this country afford. They are a people, half European, half Asiatic, who, from a state of barbarism, have been forced into immature civilization, and whose frame of society has been injudiciously reorganized on principles borrowed from nations of the highest refinement and polish. Under such circumstances, the same laws are frequently productive in their operation of a totally different, perhaps opposite effect; and their results manifested in a shape not always intelligible to the eye of a foreigner. Were they a race of savages, one might reason on their moral condition as philosophers; if a community perfectly refined, as politicians; but their present state baffles the usual modes of enquiry, and is referable to no scheme of analytical rule whatsoever. Many of the laws and customs appear, at first sight, contradictory to themselves, and repugnant to the general system of order and policy, and certainly they do not correspond to the idea we form upon such subjects; but upon more mature observation, when even a short residence has given some little insight to the nature of things, we shall find these regulations admirably calculated for the genius and character of those to whom they are addressed, and to contain the only principles that are in fact well suited to their condition. Frequently, again, in a case where we object to the conduct of some individual, we shall discover upon reflection that he has not only acted like the rest of his countrymen, but, under existing circumstances, chosen the best and wisest course which it was in his power to adopt. Looking to society in Russia, we shall find that there exists in fact only two distinct orders, the nobles and the slaves. The interval between these classes, as far as the purposes of life are concerned, is filled up by foreign residents, who once exclusively negotiated all the more lucrative branches of commerce, and now participate them with only a few of the natives. It is true that some slaves have received their liberty, and they have been said to compose a *tiers état;* but they are in number so few, when compared with the mass, as to be scarce worthy of mention, and are so far (politically speaking) from forming a class apart, that they are unable to sustain the place in society which they ought to occupy: the very act of manumission itself is considered as prejudicial rather than advantageous to a man's interest; he becomes an isolated creature, whose claims and rights are neither known nor respected; he is unable to protect himself; and being without a claim to the guardianship of a seigneur, soon falls a prey to the rapacity of the police or other corrupt administrators of the government.'

In the course of his subsequent pages, Mr. James portrays the moral and political condition of the nobles and the slaves, who may be said to constitute the only two ranks of society in this extensive empire; and, while he admits the beneficent intentions of the reigning sovereign, he justly questions the wisdom of the absolute manumission of the vassals, under their existing intellectual degradation. The corruption which infects all the departments of the executive government, and even (to a truly scandalous degree) the tribunals of justice, is attributed, in a great measure, to the very inadequate stipends of the public functionaries, and officers of all ranks and descriptions. The arts, hitherto, have been more encouraged than literature, or science: but the public hospitals, and other establishments, are instituted and conducted on the most liberal and beneficent principles. Mr. James's strictures on the commerce and manufactures of Russia are highly deserving of attention, though they scarcely possess that degree of originality which would justify our noticing them in detail.

The collection of minerals belonging to the Imperial Academy of Sciences, at Petersburg, recalls a very scanty and meagre outline of the geology of the country that intervenes between the coast of Sweden and the capital of Russia; a great part of the surface of which, indeed, was mantled in snow when the author passed over it. A red-coloured granite, or perhaps syenite, prevails as far as Sveaborg, where it assumes nearly the aspect of a felspar-rock. At Helsingfors are veins of mica slate; and at Wiburg the surface is still more diversified, the numerous large nodules of imbedded felspar exhibiting, at a little distance, the appearance of breccia. We find no mention, however, of the Ingrian granite, which Patrin has represented as a rare and beautiful variety.

Section iv. details the author's progress from Petersburg to Moscow and Smolensko, and the various statements and reflections which such a journey, undertaken at such a period, could not fail to elicit. Having indulged in some remarks on the stupidity and superstition of the Russian boors, Mr. James introduces us, at the distance of 180 versts (135 miles) from the capital, to Novgorod Veliki; a city which once contained 400,000 inhabitants, and covered an area of sixty-three versts in circumference, but of which the streets now present every symptom of fallen greatness. Ivan III., not content with its humiliation, 'caused the most horrible massacres to be committed; whose consequences, together with the atrocious cruelties that succeeded in the reign of Ivan IV., were such as to reduce the great city to its present condition of poverty and insignificance.'

Waldai, a well-built and gay town, the residence of a modern Polish colony, attracts attention from the romantic scenery that surrounds it in the midst of a desert; and from the beauty and fine complexion of its women. Its neighbouring mountains form the highest point of elevation between the Gulf of Finland and the Euxine Sea.

'Induced by this circumstance, Peter I. looked upon the spot as affording the means of organizing a scheme of communication by water between the north and south of his empire. He accordingly opened a canal, which has met with much success since his day, and become the great channel of circulation for the produce of the remotest points. On one side a passage is open through the Twertza and the Volga to Astracan and the Caspian sea: on the other, through the lake Ilmen, the Vorlkof, the Ladoga, and the Neva, to Petersburg and the Baltic; while again from the east are brought the merchandize of China and produce of the Siberian mines.

'This grand scheme, however, was not to be effected without difficulty; though the ascent and descent to the Twertza was accomplished by ordinary locks: the fall of ground towards the Msta required different management to render it in any way practicable for navigation. But Peter I. was not to be discouraged: an immense reservoir was constructed, which, by collecting the water from the small lakes in the neighbourhood, supplies a stream sufficient to carry the boats down these steeps: this necessarily flows off rapidly, and therefore is husbanded with care; vessels being only permitted to pass once in eight or ten days, in caravans of 15 or 20 at a time.

'The nature of this voyage is curious enough; when they are all assembled, which is done by beat of drum, the sluices are opened, and they follow one another with the flush of water down the precipitous passage, called the Borovitsky falls. Sundry provisions are made for their safety. In the most difficult windings of the river are moored large buoys which throw round the head of the boat when it strikes against them, if their sweeps have failed of their purpose; and in case any accident should occur, the Cossacks who are stationed at certain intervals instantly give notice above, when the sluices are closed and the supply of the current cut off. This dangerous course continues for near 33 versts; and with a view to their security, each boat is built slight and supple, and the freight set apart by an open space of one or two feet in the middle, so as to give room for the play of the timbers of her frame, which is sometimes so much shaken that the two sides of the cargo are brought to meet. To remount the cataracts is impossible; the vessels, therefore, are all burnt for fire-wood at Petersburg.'

The picture of Moscow, in its still half-consumed and desolate state, affords a highly graphic and affecting subject to the author's pen, which he has not failed to touch with his accustomed ability and feeling. Without attempting, however, to accompany him through the melancholy maze, we shall be contented to quote his opinion on a question which comes nearer home.

'It may be asked by some persons what was the effect of the subscriptions which English liberality had afforded in relief of these cases of distress. I am sorry to say that it was not in the nature of things that much could be effected by a measure of this sort; it was sometime, indeed, before the Russian government prevailed upon themselves to accept this generous mark of consideration. But it must be recollected that the class of persons to whom we would in such cases give assistance in England, under the denomination of "poor sufferers," have in this country no existence; they are all slaves, and can possess nothing legally of their own. The money sent out therefore was to be distributed in grants to such of the seigneurs as chose to avail themselves of the offer. In this way, perhaps, it answered its purpose, however indirectly, since it might relieve their peasants from the immediate call for money, which they would otherwise have experienced. If such an arrangement was not according to the wishes of the liberal contributors to the subscription, it is a painful task to record the failure of their well-meant benevolence.'

Mr. James's comments, as he journied on to Smolensko, and explored the positions of armies and the scenes of murderous conflicts, assume the guise of a military narrative, and cannot fail to enchain the attention of the most inconsiderate of his readers. Smolensko, with the exception of its cathedral, presented to his eyes little else than a heap of ruins.—His fifth section conducts us through parts of the south of Russia and Poland, tracts not exhausted like the preceding, yet offering few facilities of dispatch or accommodation. Travellers, in fact, are expected to carry their beds and provisions along with them, and may depend on meeting with not a little cunning and knavery on the part of the peasants. Here civilization seldom reaches far beyond the larger towns; while the country extends like a boundless plain of a light sandy soil, intersected by rivers, bogs, and forests, but exhibiting rare symptoms of culture, or even of habitation. The rudeness of the most ordinary mechanical contrivances, the coarseness of the sour rye-bread, the circumstance of a whole family sleeping in the same room, on mats, straw, or sheep-skins, the marked disregard of modesty, &c. sufficiently indicate a state of society little removed from that of savages. The vapour-bath seemed to be the only luxury known among these untutored tribes, and this was enjoyed by the meanest villager.—Caravans of thirty, forty, or even an hundred carts, proceeding with articles of merchandise to Petersburg or Riga, somewhat contributed to enliven the cheerlessness of the way. Another description of travellers consisted of poor pilgrims on their road to the sacred relics at Kiev.

'We met also at Tchernigoff several bodies of prisoners, who were on their return to France, having been discharged by the Emperor's late proclamation. It was amusing to observe the manner in which they received the news of the success of the allies, and, as if their affection was fed by the recollection of what they had suffered for him, they all spoke in terms of the highest admiration for [of] Buonaparte, and devotion to his cause. The common men could not be brought to believe that he had ceased to reign: they supposed, they said, the allies had been forced to sue for peace, and, on having obtained it, claimed a victory :— that the war was at an end was evident, but for the rest, it was quite impossible. The officers spoke of the new situation of things as a temporary change in the affairs of the Great Nation; and some few, in the true style of gasconade, talked with infinite assurance of a second future visit to the Russian dominions.'

The description of the catacombs at Kiev forms another of the many interesting passages which occur in the journal. — On crossing the Polish frontier, the Jews seemed to be the only active and bustling people, as they were observed to exercise almost all sorts of trades and professions. The women of this tribe, and in this district of Poland, are distinguished by their beauty, and the men by their regular and placid features. —After some dreary stages, performed in boggy and wooded tracts of land, Mr. James arrived at Novgorod, the chief town of Volhynia. — At Ostrog, the country began to assume some appearance of fertility, a quality which eminently predominates in the province of Gallicia.—Lemberg is chiefly remarkable as a colony of Jews. — Mr. Hay's entertaining account of his visit to the Countess Potocki affords a curious specimen of the style of living which obtains in the houses of the Polish grandees: but it is by much too long for an extract. —The salt mines of Wielicsa have been often described, and are not omitted by the present writer, who notes the principal circumstances concerning them, without any appearance of romantic exaggeration. He halts again at Cracow, hastens with unwelcome speed to Vienna, and somewhat abruptly closes his journal with a few geological memoranda relative to the regions that intervene between the rocks of Finland and the foot of the Carpathian mountains.

We are determined, however, not to take leave of him without again expressing our acknowlegements for the gratification which he has afforded us; and for the great quantity of substantial information and honourable sentiment which he has formed into a *seemly quarto,* without any apparent effort, and without exhibiting himself as the hero of his own story. A certain degree of heaviness in the manner and style is the only objection of a general kind which even rigid criticism can allege against the tenor of his narrative. His composition is usually correct and scholarlike, although we have occasionally stumbled on a grammatical slip, as 'chronicles *who*;' — 'each *are*;'— 'the timber — *have*,' &c. *Onus* is used for *burden,* and *mélange* for *mixture,* without any apparent necessity. The Russian peasants are twice honoured with the humane and dignified appellation of *brutes,* and once, we believe, with that of *brutified creatures.* If the public should call for a second impression of this interesting work, we doubt not that its author will be the first to remove, or modify, every expression that can be construed into an offence against good writing or polished manners.

Art. II. *The English Dance of Death;* from the Designs of Thomas Rowlandson; with Metrical Illustrations, by the Author of "Dr. Syntax." 2 Vols. Royal 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Ackermann. 1815.

We are by no means convinced of the moral utility of such a publication as the present; — a publication in which the authors profess 'to claim the approbation of the grave and good;' and to 'familiarize the mind with death, by connecting it, *in any way*, with the various situations and circumstances of life.' With deference, we would ask whether the *way*, in which these *solemn* associations are excited, be not of material consequence? and whether, in a word, all does not solely turn on this hinge, the *solemn* effect in question? A very slight mixture of the ludicrous may suffice to destroy all the gravity in the world; and, much more easily, to render two octavo volumes wholly inefficient in producing the moral result above intimated. As a test of the truth of this position, we would request our readers merely to blot out the figure of death for a moment from these designs of Mr. Rowlandson, and what will be the effect, — what will remain? an incongruous groupe, disturbed by some unknown cause, but still ridiculous in their disturbance. Restore the figure of death: even the child, who sees it above once, will become *familiarized* to the appearance of the skeleton King of Terrors; and to all other eyes it must, from the first, look like the chief buffoon in the picture!

Now is this right? Assuredly not; and yet we have a still stronger reason for expostulation with both poet and painter on the present occasion. The latter, indeed, is the real offender: but the stork should not be found among the cranes. We contend that the example of Hans Holbein, and even the grotesque paintings on the walls of some antient cathedrals, are alleged in vain to justify the *vagaries* of the pencil in the work before us. In "*coloured inuendo*," and in "*designed allusion*," they are much more exceptionable than any of their predecessors; and we should condemn some of them for their vulgar attempts at humour, were they intended for mere caricatures, though they have much of Mr. Rowlandson's merit in other respects: but, when we are told that they are to have a *moral* effect, who would not exclaim,

> " *Quodcunque ostendis mihi sic, incredulus odi?*"

The splendour of embellishment, be it graphical or typographical, which adorns the productions of the times, often makes us breathe a wish that a sort of fairy metamorphosis could take place among antient and modern authors; and that the *insides* of our favourite, and perhaps somewhat shabbily attired, intellectual companions could be magically invested with the *outsides* of their brethren of the present day,

> " And these call'd Percy, those Plantagenet!"

How delightful it would be to rob many a jay of the feathers which he has borrowed only from the printer; and to bid the genuine English worthies wear the court-dress which is so arrogantly assumed by their degenerate posterity!

Not to pursue our metaphors, we must with some reluctance confess that the two handsomely printed and decorated volumes, of which we now speak, fall so short of that degree of merit which we were happy to notice in the " Tour of Dr. Syntax," that we are unable to refrain from some just, although they may be called invidious comparisons. If such a subject had been offered to one of our elder writers; if Butler, if Gay, if Swift, had exerted their talents on it; not only how superior, but how different in *kind* as well as in *degree*, would have been the effect! If we should still have had to lament the *bad taste* attached to the subject itself, (for nothing *can* reconcile the wrong association of the very title,) we should yet have found this inherent fault so redeemed by a thousand accidental energies and beauties, that *something* good would have been attained, and *something* bad corrected, in the progress of the composition. We cannot think that this is the case at present: on the contrary, we feel that we have here a want of condensation, a feebleness and deadness of spirit, labouring to be Attic and epigrammatic together;—a pervading proof, in short, of mediocrity of genius. The work is not only " *telum imbelle sine ictu*," an arrow that falls short of its mark, but it is an *offence* of the sort committed by Mezentius in the Æneid;—

> " *Mortua quinetiam jungebat corpora vivis;*"—

it unites death and life in the most incongruous manner, and makes (if we may use a strong phrase of Shakspeare) as " beastly transformation" of the whole, as if the Canidia or Witch of Endor of antiquity had shed a misbegotten influence on it. This verdict may be considered as severe by those who have not, as we have, read the whole publication: but we are convinced that candour itself would be compelled to join most fully in our censure of the work on its complete perusal. We shall, meanwhile, enable our readers to form that imperfect idea of it which an extract, selected at random, can afford.

After some verses in praise of antient art, we have the following passage at page 139. of volume ii. The title of the poem is '*The Waltz.*'

> ' Our native artist whose *acclaim*
> Will last while art can give a name,
> To strike by contrast, boldly placed
> Near the Greek form, a figure graced
> With all the cumbrous folds of plaster,
> In shape of modern dancing-master;
> Nor could the purest power of art,
> With a more height'ning force impart
> The difference 'tween the grace that's caught,
> By fine examples daily taught,
> Which ev'ry hour attracts the eye
> In motion and in symmetry;
> And that which catgut and the wire
> With *Beau-kit*'s bravos can inspire;
> Those smirking gestures which appear
> To've been transmitted through the ear,
> And when the fidlers cease to play,
> Vanish at once, and pass away.
>
> ' Thus in the modern school we trace
> To fashion what is air and grace.
> All that the changeful phantom says,
> Or right or wrong in these fine days,
> Each sex implicitly obeys:
> Hence 'tis, we see, gay folks appear
> As fancy changes, through the year.
>
> ' If some fair Duchess, fat and frowsy,
> Striving to lose the looking blowzy,
> Lessens the circle of her waist
> By corsets stiff and tightly lac'd;
> Does all her flowing ringlets check,
> That threat to amplify her neck;
> Throws to the air her lofty bonnet,
> And places plumes of feathers on it;
> Thus losing, in Dame Nature's spite,
> Her real breadth, by artful height,
> She does no more than is her duty;
> For 'tis the policy of beauty,
> To hide defects, and to hold forth
> The charms which are of native growth.
> —But then come those whose inclination
> Is to be ever in the fashion;

And though they be but skin and bone,
They must conform to what's the ton.
Who, tall enough to make folks stare
As female giants at a fair,
Still must compress their thin waists smaller,
And make their gawky figures taller.
Nature and Reason both oppose it,
But then the great fat Duchess does it.’

We could multiply from every part of each volume quotations of equal mediocrity with the preceding: but surely this is enough for a fair opinion. Let us, however, make one more transcript, and exemplify by it the particular partiality which the writer manifests for the practitioners of the law, in the section called ‘ *The Catchpole.*’

‘ Law is, or should the offspring be
Of justice and humanity,
And prove as plain as A, B, C.
Should go strait forward on its way,
Nor e'er be subject to delay:
No crosses should its steps prolong
To what is right, or what is wrong.
The law is just, — the law is good,
While suffer'd to be understood;
But, 'tis the practice that confounds it,
Winding its mystic nonsense round it;
And such fallacious arts possessing,
It to a curse converts the blessing.

‘ Practice, the fruit of am'rous sport,
In *King's-Bench Walks*, or *Fig-Tree Court;*
What time *Contention* did constrain
To his embrace the fiend *Chicane;*
When drugg'd with pleadings, Justice slept,
While Reason saw the deed, and wept.
Then issued forth the parchment brood
Of *Writs*, ill-fated brotherhood;
Born to entangle and perplex,
Their cradle, — the attorney's desk:
Fi Fa's, Ca Sa's, and all the fry
That fill the Catchpole's Diary:
Then crabbed *Special Pleading* comes,
With all its *Clerks*, and all its *Bums.*
O *Special Pleading!* — what an art
T'enlarge the mind, and mend the heart!
O *Special Pleading!* what a science
To bid all common sense defiance,
Which not an head can understand,
Unless 'tis deck'd with wig and band.

‘ But he, perhaps, is worth the knowing,
Who sets all these fine things a-going.

> ' Your foul attorney is a wretch,
> That's far inferior to Jack Ketch.'

This picture is then completed: the attorney's friend Dick Catchpole is introduced: his arrest of Tom Frolicsome takes place; and he rudely bids his captive come with him to "durance vile."

> ' Thus, as he told his stern command,
> A grisly Spectre's fleshless hand
> His shoulder touch'd:—it chill'd his blood,
> And at the sight he trembling stood.
> —You long have ow'd, the Phantom said,
> What now must instantly be paid.——
> — O give me time!——Thou Caitiff Dun,
> You know, full well, you gave *him* none.
> Your life's the debt that I am suing;
> 'Tis the last process, Master Bruin.——
> — I'll put in bail above;——No, no:
> Old Nick shall be your bail below.'

We are far from asserting that no happy couplets are scattered over this immense multitude of rhymes: but it is the very essence of bad taste to spare and to admire a whole work for such an occasional specimen of success:

> ——— *pannus*
> *Purpureus, latè qui splendeat, unus et alter;* —
> *Injustè totum ducit venditque poëma.*

ART. III. *Christabel; Kubla Khan, a Vision; the Pains of Sleep.* By S. T. Coleridge, Esq. 8vo. pp. 64. 4s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1816.

IN a very circumstantial though short preface, Mr. Coleridge informs us that Christabel was written long ago; that consequently all marks of plagiarism which may be discovered in it are only chance-coincidences; and also that the metre of Christabel, though irregular, still has a "method in its madness," and 'counts the accents, not the syllables, in each line.' This variation from every former rule of versification is called 'a new principle;' and the reader is to be reasoned into a belief that a line of ten syllables is no longer than one of five, if there be no more *emphatic* syllables (for this is all that the author means by accent) in the one than in the other.

We have long since condemned in Mr. Scott and in Miss Holford, and in fifty other males and females, the practice of arbitrary pronunciation, assumed as a principle for regulating the length or rhythm of a verse; and we hereby declare to all whom it may concern, that they are guilty of neither more nor less than bombastic *prose*, and not even conscious of *bombastic* verse, who rest their hopes on the acquiescence of their readers in their own 'arbitrary pronunciation.' Let those readers only weigh and measure a few of Mr. Coleridge's lines in this poem of Christabel, which unfortunately was so long delayed in its publication, and which really did *not* pilfer any thing from previous poems. Let them form their opinion; and then let them say whether Mr. Coleridge originally conceived, or surreptitiously obtained, such superb ideas!

> 'Tis the middle of night by the castle clock!
> And the owls have awaken'd the crowing cock;
> Tu — whit! —— Tu — whoo!
> And hark, again! the crowing cock,
> How drowsily it crew.'

Are we to be told that this is *nature?* "*Avec permission, Monsieur*," &c. &c. (as Voltaire said in Dr. Moore's Travels,) we do not allow the plea. When Virgil describes the dead hour of night; when Homer in a still bolder manner strikes out the scene before us; when Shakspeare, boldest, truest, and yet gentlest of all, presents the same picture to our eyes; they all fill their canvas with living objects, and with actual sounds: but they are all equally above that imitative harmony, that affected adaptation of sound to sense, which nothing but German music and German poetry could ever have attempted. They would have started with horror and astonishment from such an effort, in any language, as that which Mr. Coleridge is constantly making; namely, to dignify meanness of conception, to versify the flattest prose, and to teach the human ear a new and discordant system of harmony.

We shall give the public one opportunity of judging of this extravagant but not ingenious production:

> 'Yea, she doth smile, and she doth weep,
> Like a youthful hermitess,
> Beauteous in a wilderness,
> Who, praying always, prays in sleep.
> And, if she move unquietly,
> Perchance, 'tis but the blood so free,
> Comes back and tingles in her feet.
> No doubt, she hath a vision sweet.
> What if her guardian spirit 'twere?
> What if she knew her mother near?
> But this she knows, in joys and woes,
> That saints will aid if men will call:
> For the blue sky bends over all!'

This

This precious production is not finished, but we are to have more and more of it in future! It would be truly astonishing that such rude unfashioned stuff should be tolerated, and still more that it should be praised by men of genius, (witness Lord Byron and some others,) were we not convinced that every principle of correct writing, as far as poetry is concerned, has been long *given up*; and that the observance, rather than the breach, of such rules is considered as an incontrovertible proof of rank stupidity. It is grand, in a word, it is sublime, to be lawless; and whoever writes the wildest nonsense in the quickest and newest manner is the popular poet of the day! Whether this sentence be considered as a positive truth, or as a splenetic effusion, by the different parties who *now* divide the literary world, we think that the time is fast approaching when all minds will be agreed on it; and when any versifier, who widely differs from the established standard of our nobler authors, will be directly remanded into that Limbo of vanity from which he most certainly emerged.

The fragment of 'Kubla Khan' is declared to have been composed in a dream, and is published as the author wrote it. Allowing every possible accuracy to the statement of Mr. Coleridge, we would yet ask him whether this extraordinary fragment was not rather the effect of rapid and instant composition after he was awake, than of memory immediately recording that which he dreamt when asleep? By what process of consciousness could he distinguish between such composition and such reminiscence? Impressed as his mind was with his interesting dream, and habituated as he is (notwithstanding his accidental cessation from versifying) to the momentary production of verse, will he venture to assert that he did not *compose*, and that he did *remember*, the lines before us? Were they dreamt, or were they spontaneously poured forth instantly after the dream,

> "Without stop or stay,
> Down the rocky way
> That leads," &c. &c.?

His 'psychological curiosity,' as he terms it, depends in no slight degree on the establishment of the previous fact which we have mentioned: but the poem itself is below criticism. — We would dismiss it with some portentous words of Sir Kenelm Digby, in his observations on Browne's *Religio Medici*: — "I have much ado to believe what he speaketh confidently; that he is more beholding to Morpheus for learned and rational as well as pleasing dreams, than to Mercury for smart and facetious conceptions."

'The Pains of Sleep,' a little poem at the end of the pamphlet, has some better verses in it than its predecessors. Without in the least approving the spirit, we admire the simplicity of the following lines:

> 'Ere on my bed my limbs I lay,
> It hath not been my use to pray
> With moving lips or bended knees;
> But silently, by slow degrees,
> My spirit I to love compose,
> In humble trust mine eye-lids close,
> With reverential resignation,
> No wish conceived, no thought expressed!
> Only a *sense* of supplication,
> A sense o'er all my soul imprest
> That I am weak, yet not unblest,
> Since in me, round me, every where
> Eternal strength and wisdom are.
>
> 'But yester-night I pray'd aloud
> In anguish and in agony,
> Up-starting from the fiendish crowd
> Of shapes and thoughts that tortured me:
> A lurid light, a trampling throng,
> Sense of intolerable wrong,
> And whom I scorn'd, those only strong!
> Thirst of revenge, the powerless will
> Still baffled, and yet burning still!
> Desire with loathing strangely mixed
> On wild or hateful objects fixed.
> Fantastic passions! mad'ning brawl!
> And shame and terror over all!
> Deeds to be hid which were not hid,
> Which all confused I could not know,
> Whether I suffered, or I did:
> For all seemed guilt, remorse, or woe,
> My own or others still the same
> Life-stifling fear, soul-stifling shame!'

We close the slight publication before us with unmingled regret. The author of "*Remorse*" may perhaps be able to explain our feeling better than ourselves: but that so much superior genius should be corrupted and debased by so much execrable taste must be a subject of sincere lamentation to every lover of the arts, and to every friend of poetry.

Art. IV. *The Narrative of Robert Adams,* a Sailor, who was wrecked on the Western Coast of Africa, in the Year 1810, was detained Three Years in Slavery by the Arabs of the Great Desert, and resided several Months in the City of Tombuctoo. 4to. pp. 270. 1l. 5s. sewed. Murray. 1816.

The English nation has of late years taken a very lively interest in every thing which has been discovered relative to the interior of Africa; and this anxiety for information has not originated solely from a desire to open new channels for commercial adventure: a real and genuine spirit of philanthropy has been no secondary motive to so universal a feeling; augmented, probably, in some persons, by a wish to make retribution, in being the means of introducing the blessings of religion and civilization, to a country which has been permitted to attribute many of its calamities, and not unjustly, to the agency of our own citizens. The narratives of the sufferings and probable catastrophe of that enterprizing traveller, Park, contain much to affect our minds, considered simply as the adventures of an individual: but the unusually general interest which they excited is deducible, in the first instance, from the prevalent curiosity on the subject of Africa, which has been produced in the manner that we have stated. The eagerness, with which Park's detail was read, contributed no doubt to extend the public wish for research; and the late embarkation of Major Peddie and his companions, with the view of exploring the same regions, rendered highly useful and gratifying all information that could be collected.

These circumstances fully account for the rapid circulation of the story of Adams; who professes to have visited in person those very places which our countrymen are most solicitous to examine, and which several of them have so adventurously engaged in traversing. Every thing, however, necessarily depending on the authenticity of the statement before us, great pains have been taken to sift the testimony on which it stands; and the proofs of Adams's veracity are established on grounds which, to our minds, are very satisfactory. The first portion of this volume, intitled 'Introductory Details,' clearly and fully exhibits all the evidence of the case; and we will abstract some leading points.

In October 1815, Mr. Cock, (of the African Society,) the editor, was informed by a friend that an American seaman had been recognized in the streets of London, who had a few months before been in the service of a merchant at Cadiz, where his history had excited much interest; 'the man having been a long time in slavery in the interior of Africa, and having resided several months at Tombuctoo.' Through the intervention of the gentleman who had seen Adams in London, he was again found, and taken to the office of the African Committee. His state of distress was extreme. Questions were put to him relative to his alleged residence in Africa; and his answers disclosed such extraordinary adventures and sufferings, that doubts were entertained of his veracity, though such was not the impression on the editor. His present necessities having been relieved, Adams was ordered to call at the office again in a few days: at the end of a week he returned, and was again interrogated; and, his second story being found to agree substantially with his first, the editor resolved to take notes of his whole adventures, Adams himself being unable to write or read. So far, nevertheless, was the seaman from wishing for the publicity of his story, that considerable difficulty occurred in preventing him from directly returning to America, in a transport prepared by the Consul of that country for others who were situated like himself. Previously to his agreement to stay, a Committee of the African Company met, perused the editor's notes, and professed their opinion of the credibility of the story; and henceforwards Adams attended Mr. Cock for a few hours daily through the following three weeks: upwards of fifty gentlemen seeing him during these examinations, and putting various questions to him: 'among whom there was not one who was not struck with the artlessness and good sense of Adams's replies, or who did not feel persuaded that he was relating simply the facts which he had seen, to the best of his recollection and belief.'

The concurrent opinion of so many well-informed men is of itself no bad testimony, but other events tended to establish the truth of the story on a firmer basis. The geographical accuracy of the man furnished strong internal evidence; and, when asked how he could venture to calculate distances, or the precise number of miles which he travelled on each day,

'He replied, that he could easily recollect whether the camels on any particular journey travelled well or ill; and knowing that when they are heavily laden and badly supplied with provisions, they will not go more than from ten to fifteen miles a day; but that, on the other hand, when they are fresh and lightly laden, they will travel from eighteen to twenty-five miles a day, he had reckoned the length of his journeys accordingly.

'When asked how he came to observe so minutely the *directions* in which he travelled; he replied, that he always noticed in a morning whether the sun rose in his face, or not: and that his thoughts being for ever turned to the consideration of how he should escape, he never omitted to remark, and as much as possible to impress on his recollection, the course he was travelling, and had travelled, and to make inquiries on the subject. Being a sailor, he observed, he had the habit of noticing the course he was steering at sea; and therefore found no difficulty in doing so, when traversing the deserts of Africa, which looked like the sea in a calm.'

Matters were in this state when an opportunity of obtaining decisive external evidence unexpectedly occurred, by the arrival in England of Mr. Dupuis, the British Vice-consul at Mogadore; to whose interference Adams had ascribed his liberation. Though the latter had been unfortunately embarked for New York before Mr. Dupuis reached London, so that he could not be personally confronted with that gentleman, the editor obtained an interview with Mr. D., persuaded him to peruse the entire narrative, and engaged him to return in writing any observations in the way of confirmation or otherwise, which he might be able to make. The written reply is published at full length, and affords throughout the strongest corroboration of the story of Adams. Mr. D.'s account of him when he first obtained his release is curious:

'"The appearance, features, and dress of this man upon his arrival at Mogadore, so perfectly resembled those of an Arab, or rather of a Shillub, his head being shaved, and his beard scanty and black, that I had difficulty at first in believing him to be a Christian. When I spoke to him in English, he answered me in a mixture of Arabic and broken English, and sometimes in Arabic only. At this early period I could not help remarking that his pronunciation of Arabic resembled that of a negro, but concluded that it was occasioned by his intercourse with negro-slaves."'

Mr. Dupuis states that the narrative transmitted to him is essentially the same with that which was orally delivered to him at Mogadore; and that the description of the person of Adams by Mr. Cock corresponds precisely with his (Mr. D.'s) recollections of the American seaman whom he ransomed. One thing, however, remains to be explained: it appears that, in Africa, Adams had called himself *Benjamin Rose*, and was known to his ship-mates by that name: but this circumstance, although at first sight suspicious, is well cleared up by Mr. Dupuis, and eventually rather proves than invalidates the identity of the man.

'"I cannot say that I am much surprised at this circumstance, because I recollect that he once hinted during his residence at Mogadore that "Benjamin Rose" was not his real name: and from the great apprehensions which he always discovered, lest he should fall in with, or be impressed by a British man of war, as well as from the anxiety which he shewed on being sent to Tangier, so near to Gibraltar, I could not help suspecting that he might have some reasons of his own, connected with the British naval service, for going under a feigned name. This conjecture was in some degree confirmed by an acknowlegement which he made, that he had once been on board a British man of war, either on service, or detained as a prisoner."'

In addition to this evidence, Mr. Dupuis transmitted to the editor some notes on the narrative, (published in that form in this volume,) which go very far to prove that the descriptions given by Adams are genuine and accurate; and this gentleman had the opportunity of comparing such accounts with others which he himself obtained while resident in Africa.

Such is the nature of the testimony by which the veracity of the seamen is argued. Let us now proceed to his narrative; which must not be examined as a literary composition. It is in fact a series of answers to interrogatories, thrown a little into the form of narration by the editor, but still retaining visible traces of the materials from which it is compiled;—and this we think is precisely as it should be. A very large portion is devoted to Tombuctoo, a circumstance arising from the greater avidity for information relative to that place which was displayed in the questions of the examiners of Adams, than on any other point of his adventures: the answers were in consequence swelled to a proportionate length.

According to his own account, Robert Adams, aged twenty-five, was born at Hudson, about one hundred miles up the north river from New York, was bred to the sea-faring line, and in that capacity had made several voyages to different ports in the west of Europe. In June 1810, he sailed from New York, in the ship Charles, laden with provisions, for Gibraltar. The cargo being discharged at that fortress, the vessel then proceeded, having taken in ballast, and some wine for trade, to one of the Cape de Verd islands. Whether this was the master's real intention, or he proposed to make a trading voyage on the African coast, is not quite ascertained: but on the 11th of October, while the ship's course was south south-west, at three o'clock in the morning, breakers were heard; and about an hour afterward the vessel struck, though so much fog prevailed that the shore could not be seen. The crew, consisting of ten persons, all saved themselves: but, a few hours after day-break, they were surrounded by thirty or forty Moors, and made prisoners. The place at which they landed was called *El Gazie*, a low sandy beach, having no sign of vegetation in sight; and it was computed by Horton, the master, to be about four hundred miles north of the Senegal river. Scarcely any thing was saved from the wreck, the vessel bilging soon after the accident. The Moors were quite black, but straight-haired; nearly naked, and the males circumcised. Their indigence was extreme: but, in a fortnight after the wreck, having collected fish enough to load a camel, they left the coast, taking their prisoners with them.

Among the Moors, the crew discovered a Frenchman, who ate and slept with them, and was therefore suspected of having turned Mohammedan: he had been driven on the coast with others, but his companions had been sent into the interior. On the landing of the crew, they were all stripped naked, when the exposure to a burning sun blistered their skins; and at night they were obliged to dig holes in the sand, in which they slept, for the sake of coolness. Adams states that the Captain was put to death about a week after they had landed, the Moors having taken offence at his manner, which was menacing and stubborn: but Mr. Dupuis does not recollect to have heard this from others of the crew whom he saw at Mogadore, and thinks that they told him that the Captain's death was the occasion of sickness and despondency.

When the Moors left the coast, Adams, Dolbie the mate, and Newsham a seaman, were left with about twenty of them, including women and children; and they travelled with this party thirty days, at the average rate of fifteen miles daily, their course being eastward, inclining a little to the south, without seeing a human being. The first place at which they arrived consisted of about forty tents near a pool of water; and here Adams was separated from Dolbie and Newsham, but joined by Steevens, a Portugueze about eighteen years of age, also one of the same crew. It does not appear improbable that these Moors would have taken their two prisoners to Mogadore, (Suerra, in their language,) for the sake of ransom: but, before any such hopes could be realized, an unfortunate expedition was proposed to make negro-slaves *; and the two white men being included in the party, they proceeded to a place called Soudenny. Here, however, the tables were turned on the aggressors, and they were themselves taken captive, and ultimately conveyed to Tombuctoo, the capital of the negro-state into which the incursion had been made. Sixteen of the Moors were beheaded for refractory

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* Park confirms this account of the depredations of the wandering tribes of Moors on the negro-settlements, and particularly specifies that they carry off the men as slaves.

tory conduct during the journey, and the head of one was suspended from the neck of a camel until it became putrid, in terror to the rest. The journey, from the first station to Soudenny, occupied twelve days, at the rate of nearly twenty miles per day; and from Soudenny to Tombuctoo, fifteen days, with nearly the same expedition. The direction to Soudenny was S. E., and thence nearly E., but a little inclining to the N.

We never partook much of the visionary dreams respecting this metropolis, as it has been called, of central Africa: nor imagined that the greatness of its mart, when divested of the exaggeration which obscurity so generally confers, would open many new views to commercial speculation; and the very account which Adams gives of it, subversive as it is of all such grand notions, adds in our opinion much strength to the credibility of his story. Considering the description of this city as the most important part of the narrative, we shall dwell on it the longer, and pass rapidly over the remaining events after Adams left this residence.

Tombuctoo stands on a level plain, having a river about two hundred yards from the town on the S. E., named *La Mar Zarah*, three quarters of a mile in width, appearing to have but little current, and that little flowing to the S. W.* The city seemed to Adams to cover as much ground as Lisbon: but the houses were not continuous, had a ground-floor only, were built of sticks, clay, and grass, and were furnished merely with the rudest domestic implements: the town had no exterior walls, or fortifications; and the population, of which our informant could not make a regular estimate, bore no corresponding proportion to the area of the place, if compared with European towns, as indeed we may infer from the nature of the houses. The river-water, although somewhat brackish, is constantly used for drink; and Adams does not believe that there were any wells at Tombuctoo. The natives have no larger boats or vessels than canoes, of about ten feet in length, made very inartificially. Of the natural productions, vegetable and animal, we will specify a few. The principal fruits are cocoa-nuts, dates, figs, pine-apples, and a sweet fruit of the peach kind: the vegetables are carrots, turnips, sweet potatoes, negro-beans, and small cabbages: the grain consists chiefly of rice and guinea-corn; and the cultivation of the land is performed solely with a kind of hoe, the only implement of husbandry that Adams observed. The animals are elephants, cows, goats, asses, camels, dromedaries, dogs, antelopes, rabbits, and a creature called *heirie*, resembling a very small camel, and used only for riding. * This latter is similarly described by Leo Africanus, who calls it "*ragnahil*;" and Pennant's account of it, under the name of *raguahl*, exactly corresponds with that of Adams. On the subject of the elephant, Adams does not accord with the received opinions of natural history: but it seems probable that the novelty of the animal in his eyes led him to exaggerate its magnitude:—the flesh of it, he says, was eaten by the natives, but made very coarse food. Among the wild animals, he saw one which has never before been noticed by any naturalist.

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* On the course of the river, Adams spoke with more diffidence than on most other points: it is indeed a material one; he nevertheless invariably stated that to the best of his belief it did flow to the S. W.

'Besides these, there is in the vicinity of Tombuctoo, a most extraordinary animal named *courcoo*, somewhat resembling a very large dog, but having an opening or hollow on its back like a pocket, in which it carries its prey. It has short-pointed ears and a short tail. Its skin is of an uniform reddish-brown on its back, like a fox, but its belly is of a light-grey colour. It will ascend trees with great agility and gather cocoa-nuts, which Adams supposes to be a part of its food. But it also devours goats and even young children, and the negroes were greatly afraid of it. Its cry is like that of an owl.'

Adams confessed to the editor that he never viewed this animal at less than forty yards' distance:—his description, we are told, answered in some points to that of the lynx.

The birds offer nothing worthy of remark, except indeed negatively, as that the narrator did not recollect to have seen a swallow. The insects seem scarcely to have attracted his notice. The exterior appearance of the natives themselves will be collected from the ensuing passage:

'The natives of Tombuctoo are a stout, healthy race, and are seldom sick, although they expose themselves by lying out in the sun at mid-day, when the heat is almost insupportable to a white man. It is the universal practice of both sexes to grease themselves all over with butter produced from goat's milk, which makes the skin smooth, and gives it a shining appearance. This is usually renewed every day; when neglected, the skin becomes rough, greyish, and extremely ugly. They usually sleep under cover at night; but sometimes, in the hottest weather, they will lie exposed to the night-air with little or no covering, notwithstanding that the fog which rises from the river descends like dew, and in fact, at that season, supplies the want of rain.

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* Mr. Dupuis does not recollect that Adams, when at Mogadore, excluded horses from this catalogue: but he expresses his belief, derived from other information, that these negroes have not that animal.

'All the males of Tombuctoo have an incision on their faces from the top of the forehead down to the nose, from which proceed other lateral incisions over the eyebrows, into all of which is inserted a blue dye, produced from a kind of ore which is found in the neighbouring mountains. The women have also incisions on their faces, but in a different fashion; the lines being from two to five in number, cut on each cheek-bone, from the temple straight downwards: they are also stained with blue. These incisions being made on the faces of both sexes when they are about twelve months old, the dyeing material which is inserted in them becomes scarcely visible as they grow up.'

As to the personal ornaments of the natives, they were similar to those which are generally found among savage tribes. It does not appear that they hold any public exercise of religion, or have any house of worship, or ever meet to pray, though some ceremony, seemingly religious, was observed at the burial of the dead: but Adams was probably not a very accurate inquirer into these matters. Park describes the natives of Soudan as saying a prayer on the appearance of the new moon; and if the religious observances of these people were so rare of occurrence, it is not surprizing that they escaped the seaman's notice. We must pass over their medicine, music, and dancing, topics not very interesting in this case, and proceed to the little information that has been collected relative to their trade: indeed, the account already given makes it evident that they can have neither great means nor much inclination to purchase many articles of European luxury.

Adams says that he saw no shops at Tombuctoo, a point on which Mr. Dupuis doubts his correctness: but nothing seems to us more probable than that a man of no enlarged mind should make mistakes of this sort; since a house for barter, where goods were not exposed much to view, would scarcely have corresponded with his ideas of a shop. 'The articles brought for sale, which consisted chiefly of tobacco, tar, gun-powder, blue nankeens, blankets, earthen jars, and some silks, are obtained from the Moors *, and remain in the king's house

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* These goods Mr. Dupuis represents to be brought by caravans from the Barbary states. The natives of Tombuctoo were formerly under the dominion of the Moors, and after their emancipation carried on a considerable trade with them. This has greatly declined of late years.

until disposed of. The only other objects of trade seemed to be slaves.' (P. 41.) — Gun-powder appeared to be more valuable than gold, since a greater weight of the former was given in a barter of the two articles. The exports of this people were chiefly gold-dust, ivory, gum, cowries, ostrich-feathers, and goat-skins, the latter stained red and yellow. Slaves were procured by purchase, and Adams saw them sell for forty or fifty cowries, (a price so very small that Mr. Dupuis considers him as erroneous in this particular,) and also by predatory incursions into neighbouring states.

Both the white men were treated with great kindness at Tombuctoo, were never required to work, and had as much food as they wanted. Indeed, Adams believes, from the curiosity with which the natives regarded them, that they were the first white men ever seen in those parts. He himself, however, was of so very dark a complexion, that many Moors with whom some of these Negroes must have met were more fair; and we agree therefore with Mr. Dupuis in thinking that the curiosity probably arose from their being '*Christians*, and *Christian slaves*.' — The King of Tombuctoo seemed to be despotic, but the government was mildly exercised; he and his wife were old and grey-headed: blue nankeen, adorned with gold lace, formed the usual dress of both; and the Queen was accustomed to sit and look at Adams and Stevens for hours together. The palace consisted simply of eight or ten small rooms on a ground-floor, not even white-washed, and built of clay and grass. — A vocabulary of a few words used in this country is added to the account of it, which are mostly Arabic: but Mr. Dupuis doubts whether Adams may not have confounded some of the names of things, that he heard during his subsequent long sufferings among the Arabs, with the Negro language; and nothing is more probable.

Little addition to our geographical knowlege has been gained by this residence at Tombuctoo. To the surprize of the African Committee, Adams did not recollect to have heard there of *the Joliba* river, a subject of such interesting research: but we should consider that the same river would probably pass under different appellations in the territories of different states. The name of *La Mar Zarah* closely corresponds with that of the *Zayr* or Congo river, presumed by Park to be the termination of the Niger in the Atlantic ocean: but the distance from Tombuctoo to that mouth renders it highly improbable that the river should preserve its name throughout. It should be added, also, that the Tombuctoo river is supposed to fall into the Niger at twelve miles' distance from that town; yet the breadth ascribed to it by Adams will not allow us to consider it as a merely subsidiary stream.

Whether the descriptions of this city by Leo, in the sixteenth century, partook more of imagination than of truth, can now be only a matter of opinion: since, even supposing them to have been genuine, a lapse of three centuries, in a country subject to every species of political change and barbaric invasion, will tell us that we have no reason to invalidate the testimony of the American seaman because such things once were. The account, however, which we have detailed from the narrative is far more consonant to general probability, and to the limited observations which Park was enabled to make, than the magnificent expectations of more sanguine reasoners. The editor draws two simple conclusions from this information relative to Tombuctoo; the one, he says, propitious, and the other adverse to the progress of discovery and civilization: — viz. '*The mild and tractable manners of the Pagan Negroes of Soudan, and their friendly deportment towards strangers*, on the one hand; — and on the other, *The extended and baneful range of that original feature of African society — Slavery.*' (P. 192.)

After having remained at Tombuctoo between four and five months, Adams and his companion were re-purchased by a party of Moors, together with those of the same country who had been taken with them: and his subsequent sufferings during nearly two years and a half, while in slavery with the Moors, and enduring all kinds of hardships, contumely, and ill treatment, form by far the most interesting part of his personal narrative. Yet little can be gained from it, beyond that pleasure which most persons feel in reading any tale that strongly excites their commiseration. In about a year and three months, by the interchange of masters, and having generally followed his new owners in a north-westerly direction, Adams arrived at Wadinoon, or Wed-noon, where he met with three more of the crew of the Charles; viz. Dolbie the mate, and Davison and Williams, two seamen. (He had been previously separated from Stevens.) They had been at Wed-noon about twelve months, and Dolbie died at this place, being stabbed by a Moor who was enraged at him for refusing to work, for which illness rendered him unfit. Williams and Davison, exhausted by importunity and suffering, at last renounced their religion, and, being circumcised, obtained their freedom: but scarcely had their fortitude been thus overcome, when the period of their distress seemed likely to draw to a close:

'As Adams was the only remaining Christian at Wadinoon, he became in a more especial manner an object of the derision and persecution of the Moors, who were constantly upbraiding and reviling him, and telling him that his soul would be lost unless he became a Mahommedan, insomuch that his life was becoming intolerable; when, only three days after Williams and Davison had renounced their religion, a letter was received from Mr. Joseph Dupuis, British Consul at Mogadore, addressed to the Christian prisoners at Wadinoon, under cover to the Governor; in which the Consul, after exhorting them most earnestly not to give up their religion, whatever might befal them, assured them that within a month he should be able to procure their liberty. Davison heard the letter read apparently without emotion, but Williams became so agitated, that he let it drop out of his hands, and burst into a flood of tears.'

About a month more elapsed, when a servant of the Consul, disguised as a trader, came to Wed-noon, and made known to Adams that his release was procured; and on the next morning they set out together for Mogadore, (leaving Davison and Williams, who afterward escaped,) which place they reached in fourteen days, travelling on mules at the rate of about thirty miles each day. The distance from Tombuctoo to Mogadore, by the route which Adams took, is estimated at 1624 British miles; and the whole of his travels in the interior of Africa, through the most desert parts, at nearly 3000. The first re-appearances of civilized life, as we may easily imagine, made a strong impression on his mind.

'About twelve o'clock on the 5th day, ascending a hill, they discovered the town of Mogadore beneath them, and square-rigged vessels lying in the harbour; the sight of which, says Adams, "I can no otherwise describe than by saying, I felt as if a new life had been given to me." In about half an hour afterwards they entered the town, and immediately went to the house of the Governor, who sent Adams to Mr. Dupuis, the British Consul; by whom he was received into his house, and treated with the utmost kindness. "Never," says Adams, "shall I forget the kindness of this good gentleman, who seemed to study how to make me comfortable and happy.'

The remainder of his story may be shortly related. Mr. Simpson, the American Consul, sent him in a Spanish schooner to Cadiz, where he arrived three years and seven months after his shipwreck; during which time, with the exception of weakness produced by beating, he had never been ill a single day. At Cadiz, he remained about fourteen months as servant to Mr. Hall, a merchant there; and thence he embarked on board a vessel bound to Liverpool: but, having been driven into Holyhead, he was there taken ill, and put on shore. From that place he begged his way to London;

and, as if his sufferings were not likely to end even in European countries, he was now so absolutely destitute that he slept three or four nights in the open streets, until he was recognized by a gentleman who had seen him in Mr. Hall's service at Cadiz. It is to be hoped, however, that for the information which he has given us, although not very great, he may still taste the sweets of British liberality; and we are told that the profits arising from this volume, which we imagine will not be inconsiderable, will be transmitted to him in America by some members of the African Committee.

It is necessary that we should now briefly notice the remaining contents of the volume; of which Adams's narrative does not occupy nearly one third part. To that detail succeed 'Notes and Illustrations,' many of them supplied by Mr. Dupuis, tending to establish the authenticity of Adams by a comparison of his statements with such other information relative to the interior of Africa, as the inquisitive mind of this gentleman enabled him to procure during his residence at Mogadore; and Mr. D.'s observations lead us to hope that he may be induced to collect his scattered remarks, derived from Moorish traders, digest them, enlighten them with his own reasonings, (of which he seems highly capable,) and publish them for the instruction of future adventurers in African discovery. The notes are followed by 'concluding Remarks;' the chief object of which seems to be to sum up the whole case, and, by comparing parts of the narrative with the more valuable notes, to extract probable truths on those points on which some variation occurs in testimony as to facts.

The volume then concludes with two appendices. The first contains a memoir, not uninteresting, on the geography of the interior of Africa; which aims to establish, as its result, that our object in exploring these countries should be to commence our discoveries by trade and navigation, from a point as near as possible to the western ocean; and that for this purpose we should secure the banks of the Gambia, instead of endeavouring to transport a caravan in the first instance to Bammahoo on the Niger. From the higher parts of the Gambia, the author would propose to send a mission to discover how near to the westward the Niger first became navigable; and, that point being ascertained, much future difficulty would undoubtedly be removed. The French had formerly a fort one hundred and fifty miles up the Senegal river; and a similar attempt on the Gambia does not seem likely to fail.

Appendix No. II., from the pen of Mr. Dupuis, gives a sketch of the population of western Barbary, which he divides generally into the *Berebbers*, the *Arabs*, and the *Moors*. After having traced the origin of these classes, and marked their national characteristics, he concludes with drawing a line of difference between them, such as would fall under the notice of the more casual observer. The *Berebbers* are cultivators of the soil and breeders of cattle, occupy mountainous countries, and reside in habitations of stone and timber.— The *Arabs* live in the plains, follow similar agricultural pursuits, and dwell in tents.—The *Moors* are traders, and inhabit the towns.

In dismissing this volume, we have only to add that, although it will be more generally taken up as a work of amusement than of instruction, it may nevertheless tend to elucidate many points, about which those who are interested in African discovery have as yet maintained contradictory opinions. The most valuable information to be obtained from it undoubtedly regards the characters of the natives of different districts; our geographical knowlege not being much improved by the details which it conveys.—A map illustrative of Adams's route is prefixed.

ART. V. *The Antiquary*, by the Author of "Waverley," and "Guy Mannering." 3 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Longman and Co. 1816.

THE amatory youth of Greece consoled themselves with the convenient assurance of one of their own poets, that "Jove laughed at lovers' perjuries;" and, if so much mercy has been extended to these more notorious offenders, it seems not unfair to conclude that the vows of poets, and indeed of authors in general, when they announce that such or such a work will be their last literary labour, pass altogether unrecorded. When, therefore, the author of *Waverley* and *Guy Mannering*, in his preface to the tale now before us, 'takes his respectful leave of the public, as one who is not likely again to solicit their favour,' we beg to assure him that, in case of any future infraction of his present purpose, we critics, the just and true ministers of Jove's wrath on these occasions, will not only hold the offence perfectly venial, but pronounce a summary absolution from all such engagements.*

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* In fact, another novel (intitled "Tales of my Landlord,") has just issued from the press, which is attributed to the same hand. What claims it may have to such a distinction, for it is not a trifling one, we shall take an early opportunity of inquiring and reporting.

In the preface to which we have referred, the author assigns as a reason for his proposed future abstinence from the pen, that this work completes his series of fictitious narratives illustrative of the manners of Scotland at three different periods; *Waverley* embracing the age of our fathers, *Guy Mannering* relating to that of our own youth, and the *Antiquary* delineating the few concluding years of the last century. We suspect, however, that such a classification as this, by which the three parts constitute a whole, never entered into the writer's mind until after all the portions were fairly and honestly written. We seem to feel our hair turning more grey, when we are told that Mannering amused himself with the occult sciences, while we were poring over Nicomachean Ethics at Oxford; and we deny that the present work, however deserving it may be of commendation in other respects, is a delineation of the manners, considered generally, of any one short limited period whatever. That this tale contains many representations of human life and many shades of character such as now exist, or have existed within these few years, is beyond all doubt: but the main action of the piece itself might have been conducted by the same principal agents, without any offence to moral chronology, as well within the last half-century as the last twenty years. The Antiquary himself, the chief personage undoubtedly in the piece, although not the hero, (and indeed the author is less of a dealer in *heroes* than most novel-writers,) exemplifies one of those strong deviations from the mode of thinking prevalent in society, which originate in an excessive, exclusive, and pedantic attachment to one line of thought and study; and which have occurred, and it is to be hoped will continue to occur, in all ages, to the great relief of that monotony which an equalizing and widely diffused civilization must always tend to produce.

An analysis of such narratives, as this writer presents to the public, must necessarily convey but a very feeble and faint representation of the original tale. His peculiar art, by which he has so eminently succeeded in exciting our interest, consists far less in the involution of the plot, variety of incident, or command over the stronger feelings of our nature, than in that minute, happy, and frequently very humorous delineation of manners, in which as a modern novel-writer he stands nearly, if not altogether, without a rival. Working with different materials, and on very different subjects, from those which employed Fielding, he nevertheless resembles that author occasionally in the close application of his descriptions to peculiar stations, and their concomitant habits of thinking, acting, and speaking. In other points, such a comparison will not hold good. — Some account of the story will, however, be expected from us; and, indeed, any remarks that we may be induced to make will not be intelligible without it.

The scene opens with two persons, impatiently expecting a public vehicle to convey them from Edinburgh to the Queen's-ferry before the ebb of the tide. They were strangers to each other, and, as the morning was fine, continued to pace up and down before the door of an old woman, who distributed the tickets (the mode, it appears, of taking a place in a Scotch stage-coach) which intitled the bearers to their seats. Six passengers were the complement of the vehicle: but, as two of these tickets only had been delivered, the hope of chance-customers delayed the appearance of the coach at its station much beyond the promised time. The Antiquary himself, and the *hero*, or lover, of the tale, who are the possessors of the aforesaid tickets, commence their acquaintance by this accidental meeting and their subsequent travelling *tête-à-tête*. The exterior appearance of the latter may be easily guessed by all readers of novels: but to the usual endowments of such personages he added a well cultivated mind, and a pensive and modest demeanour. We are afterward to recognize him by the name of Lovel. The first impression of the Antiquary had better be received by our readers from the author's own description:

> 'He was a good-looking man of the age of sixty, perhaps older, but his hale complexion and firm step announced that years had not impaired his strength or health. His countenance was of the true Scottish cast, strongly marked, and rather harsh in features, with a shrewd and penetrating eye, and a countenance in which habitual gravity was enlivened by a cast of ironical humour. His dress was uniform, and of a colour becoming his age and gravity; a wig, well dressed and powdered, surmounted by a slouched hat, had something of a professional air. He might be a clergyman, yet his appearance was more that of a man of the world than usually belongs to the Kirk of Scotland, and his first ejaculation put the matter beyond question.
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> 'He arrived with a hurried pace, and, casting an alarmed glance towards the dial-plate of the church, then looking at the place where the coach should have been, exclaimed, "De'il's in it — I am too late after all."
>
> 'The young man relieved his anxiety by telling him the coach had not yet appeared. The old gentleman, apparently conscious of his own want of punctuality, did not at first feel courageous enough to censure that of the coachman. He took a parcel, containing apparently a large folio, from a little boy who followed him, and, patting him on the head, bid him go back and tell Mr. B——, that if he had known he was to have had so much time, he would have put another word or two to their bargain, —

then told the boy to mind his business, and he would be as thriving a lad as ever dusted a duodecimo. The boy lingered, perhaps in hopes of a penny to buy marbles, but none was forthcoming. Our senior leaned his little bundle upon one of the posts at the head of the staircase, and, facing the traveller who had first arrived, waited in silence for about five minutes the arrival of the expected Diligence.'

When the large folio-book, mentioned in the above extract, was produced in the coach, it proved to be "Sandy Gordon's *Itinerarium Septentrionale*," a work illustrative of the Roman remains in Scotland. The conversation subsequent on this display developes some points in the character of the older traveller to his younger companion: but the elderly gentleman, although much pleased with his new acquaintance, does not estimate his situation in life very favourably; conceiving, from some misplaced interpretations of his words, that he was nothing more than an itinerant actor, on his way to join a company of his brethren at the town of Fairport, near to which was the residence of the Antiquary. The name of this gentleman was Oldbuck, and his territorial appellation, derived from his estate, (which is usual with Scotch lairds,) was Monkbarns, by which latter denomination he will be henceforth designated. His story, previously to the present narrative, may be stated in few words. The first of-the family who had settled in Scotland was descended from one of the earliest German printers; who had fled, but not without property, from the Continent, on account of the persecutions to which as a Protestant he was there subjected; and who had purchased the estate of Monkbarns from some ruined laird: the lands had originally belonged to the church. The father of the existing proprietor had been Provost of the neighbouring town in 1745; and, as his exertions in favour of the house of Hanover had been well repaid, he had added considerably to his patrimony. Of his two sons, the elder had gone into the army, and was supposed to be dead; having left an orphan son and daughter, the issue of a love-match. The younger was the Antiquary himself, who resided at Monkbarns with an old maiden-sister, and his niece; the nephew was also under his care, but absent with the army, in which he had the rank of captain. From this genealogy, two consequences naturally resulted; the one, that, as his descent was not altogether patrician, the neighbouring lairds deemed it an act of condescension to visit him; the other, that, as many of them retained Jacobite principles, his politics did not well consort with those of some of the surrounding gentry.

The fellow-travellers parted at Fairport, with an invitation on the part of Monkbarns to Lovel; of which, after some interval, the latter availed himself, was received with civility, and underwent the painful operation of listening to much antiquarian pedantry and trifling. In the course of a walk, the Laird conducted his guest to some broken ground, which he asserted to be the remains of an antient Roman encampment; and Lovel having observed that he did see something like a ditch, *indistinctly* marked, the Antiquary indignantly replied;

'"Indistinctly! — pardon me, Sir, but the indistinctness must be in your powers of vision — nothing can be more plainly traced — a proper *agger* or *vallum*, with its corresponding ditch or *fossa*. Indistinctly! why, Heaven help you, the lassie, my niece, as light-headed a goose as womankind affords, saw the traces of the ditch at once. Indistinct! why, the great station at Ardoch, or that at Burnswark in Annandale, may be clearer doubtless, because they are stative forts, whereas this was only an occasional encampment. Indistinct! why, you must suppose that fools, boors, and idiots have ploughed up the land, and, like beasts and ignorant savages, have thereby obliterated two sides of the square, and greatly injured the third; but ye see, yourself, the fourth side is quite entire!"'

With a recurrence to much learned authority and deep disquisition, the Antiquary had just advanced to the words 'from this very prætorium,' — when a voice from behind interrupted the extatic description with the exclamation, "Prætorian here, Prætorian there, I mind the bigging o't." (I remember the making of it.) Both turned at the sound, and discovered an old Scotch mendicant, who, as he is introduced here for the purpose of representing that class of beings in the north, shall be depicted to the reader in the author's words:

'A slouched hat of huge dimensions; a long white beard, which mingled with his grizzled hair; an aged, but strongly marked and expressive countenance, hardened, by climate and exposure, to a right brick-dust complexion; a long blue gown, with a pewter badge on the right arm; two or three wallets, or bags, slung across his shoulder, for holding the different kinds of meal, when he received his charity in kind from those who were but a degree richer than himself, — all these marked at once a beggar by profession, and one of that privileged class which are called in Scotland the King's Bedes-men, or, vulgarly, Blue-gowns.'

This singular personage, who is no flatterer of prejudice, at once overturns the learned theories of Monkbarns, by stating the time and circumstance of the ditch, fossa, vallum, or prætorium, which it appears had been dug about twenty years since. The ludicrous effects of the disappointment are well turned off.

The theatre had opened at Fairport, but Lovel did not appear on the boards, a circumstance which made Monkbarns almost doubt the ingenuity of his own conjectures. New characters are now introduced. The Antiquary had one neighbour, whom he saw more frequently than the others, Sir Arthur Wardour, a baronet of antient descent and large but embarrassed fortune; his father had been a Jacobite, and Sir A. professed his family-politics, but these were a portion of his patrimony which he had not deteriorated much by use. Increasing age had withdrawn him from field-sports, and he had become a joint labourer with Monkbarns in antiquarian pursuits. About some points, however, they differed most materially; which, from the warmth of the Baronet's temper, would often have produced the bitterest feuds, but for the kind interposition of his daughter Isabella; who, with a son now absent on foreign military service, formed the whole of his family.— Sir Arthur and Miss W. were now summoned to Monkbarns as guests to dinner, Lovel being appointed to meet them; and the dinner itself, with the conversation, after the ladies (or the 'womankind' as the Antiquary usually termed them with a sneer,) had withdrawn, is very characteristic. Unfortunately, a dispute on etymology produced high words, and Sir Arthur quitted the unfinished bottle of old port abruptly, and stalked into the drawing-room, where his daughter proposed to walk forwards to meet his carriage; to which the Baronet, in his pet, readily assented. As the evening was fine, they determined on proceeding along the sands on the sea-coast, in the prosecution of which plan they nearly perished; the tide having risen suddenly, and with a violent storm surrounded them in a place from which it was impossible either to advance or recede. The incident, which although not very new, is admirably worked up, is clearly introduced to afford an opportunity for Lovel to assist in the rescue of Isabella Wardour, which he sussessfully effected. All the neighbourhood lent their aid; and, after much labour, the sufferers were raised by ropes above the cliffs: Edie Ochiltree, the old beggar, being not the least active performer in the business.

After the fatigues of the evening, Lovel had slept in an old tapestry-chamber at Monkbarns, reputed to be haunted; and indeed so many visions passed over his agitated mind, that whether it was or not was nearly equivalent to him. He derived, nevertheless, some happy omens from his dreams on the subject of his most anxious wishes, namely, his attachment to Isabella Wardour, the real but hitherto concealed cause of his journey to Scotland. The feelings of the lady towards her mysterious lover will be gathered from the ensuing extract:

> 'To look back on the events of the preceding day was, to Isabella, a very unpleasing retrospect. She owed her life, and that of her father, to the very person by whom, of all others, she wished least to be obliged, because she could hardly even express common gratitude towards him without encouraging hopes which might be injurious to them both. "Why should it be my fate to receive such benefits, and conferred at so much personal risk, from one whose romantic passion I have so unceasingly laboured to discourage? Why should chance have given him this advantage over me? and why, oh why, should a half-subdued feeling in my own bosom, in spite of my sober reason, almost rejoice that he has attained it?"'

While Miss W. was agitated by such thoughts, a visit was announced from Monkbarns and Lovel. In a short accidental conversation between the young people on this occasion, the lover obtained little encouragement in the pursuit of his passion: but, as the preserver of the Baronet's life, he was by him desired to repeat his vists. On the following day, Lovel received a large packet from the post-town, which rendered it necessary for him to leave the *hospitium* of the Antiquary, as that old gentleman called his house, and repair to his lodgings at Fairport. The delivery of this letter leads the author to a description of a Scotch post-office; which, as a comic scene, is far superior to any thing else in the present or in either of his former works. The arrival of the Edinburgh mail-bag appears to be a signal for all the gossips in a Scotch country-town to call in at the post-office; in order, from the outside of the letters, 'and the inside too, if they are not belied, to amuse themselves with gleaning information or forming conjectures on the correspondence and affairs of the neighbours.' We regret that we can only refer our readers to chap. xv. vol. i. which is too long to be extracted, and will not bear curtailment.

Whatever were the contents of Lovel's letter, which bore the appearance of an official dispatch, it confined him very closely to his lodgings at Fairport. Monkbarns imagined all the while that his young friend was engaged in the prosecution of an epic poem, for which he had furnished him an outline: but in this conjecture, as in most others, the good Antiquary was deceived. After a time, however, Lovel emerged from his retirement, and we find him joining the Wardours and his old friend in a rural excursion; and an additional personage is here introduced, on whom many subsequent incidents of the novel materially turn. His name is Dousterswivel, and he is to be considered as an unprincipled German adventurer,

gifted

gifted with the power of persuasion, and a specious smattering of geological and chemical science; by which he had sacrificed many dupes to his own interest in the prosecution of mining-schemes, and other projects of a similar nature. Sir Arthur was his present victim, and was led on by a blind infatuation to his own ruin. This character is pushed so very far beyond the bounds of probability, that the author has deemed it necessary to make an apology for him in his preface; allowing that the knavery of the adept may appear forced, but assuring his readers that this part of his narrative is founded on a fact of actual occurrence. Without an idea of impeaching the writer's assertion, we must add that the phrase of "*incredulus odi*" will be applied to the agency of the *charlatan*, as here introduced, by almost every reader. We will consequently omit all that results from this personage; comprehending his general influence on the tale by stating that his projects reduced Sir Arthur Wardour to the lowest ebb of pecuniary distress; and that, in the prosecution of a plan to discover the secret treasure of a ruined monastery, by sundry mystical ceremonies, he was himself brought into the most ridiculous circumstances, and detected in his frauds by those who were less credulous than the worthy Baronet.—Captain M'Intyre, a hot-headed young soldier, and the nephew of Monkbarns, also joined the party of neighbours on the rural excursion above mentioned to the priory of St. Ruth. He entertained some suspicion that the name of Lovel was a fictitious one, (which in fact it was,) and disliked the gentleman who bore it, from a fear of the effect of his attentions to Miss Wardour, whom he also loved. He therefore provoked a quarrel with Lovel: a challenge and a meeting ensued: but, before any rencounter took place, the old beggar Edie Ochiltree appeared on the ground; and his conduct on the occasion is too characteristic of this curious personage to be omitted.

'The old man drew himself up to the full advantage of his uncommon height, and, in despite of his dress, which indeed had more of the pilgrim than the ordinary beggar, looked, from height, manner, and emphasis of voice and gesture, rather like a grey palmer, or eremite preacher, the ghostly counsellor of the young men who were round him, than the object of their charity. His speech, indeed, was as homely as his habit, but as bold and unceremonious as his erect and dignified demeanour. "What are ye come here for, young men?" he said, addressing himself to the surprised audience; "are ye come amongst the most lovely works of God to break his laws? — Have ye left the works of man, the houses and the cities that are but clay and dust, like those that built them; and are ye come here among the peaceful hills, and by the quiet waters, that will last whiles aught earthly shall

> endure, to destroy each other's lives, that will have but an unco short time, by the course of nature, to make up a lang account at the close o't? O Sirs! hae ye brothers, sisters, fathers, that hae tended ye, and mothers that hae travailed for ye, friends that hae ca'd ye like a piece o' their ain heart? And is this the way ye tak to make them childless and brotherless and friendless? — Ohon! it's an ill fight whar he that wins has the warst o't. Think on't, bairns — I'm a puir man — but I'am an auld man too, and what my poverty takes awa' frae the weight o' my counsel, grey hairs and a truthfu' heart should add it twenty times — Gang hame, gang hame, like gude lads — the French will be ower to harry us ane o' thae days, and ye'll hae fighting aneugh, and may be auld Edie will hirple out himsel if he can get a feal-dike to lay his gun ower, and may live to tell you whilk o' ye does the best where there's a good cause afore ye." '

No one can read this passage without comparing the excessive energy of the speaker, and the solemn tone which he assumes, to the monitory effusions of Meg Merrilies in Guy Mannering; nor is this the only resemblance. His present interference, however, was vain; the duel was fought, Captain M'Intyre wounded, and his antagonist persuaded by all present to fly, for fear of fatal consequences. Edie Ochiltree then concealed Lovel during the night in a cave belonging to the neighbouring ruins of St. Ruth; and some of the old man's reflections while in this situation are excellently described:

> 'The light within the cave was a dusky twilight at the entrance, which failed altogether in the inner recesses. "Few folks ken o' this place," said the old man; "to the best o' my knowledge, there's just twa living by mysel, and that's Jingling Jock and the Lang Linker. I have had mony a thought, that when I fand mysel auld and forfairn, and no able to enjoy God's blessed air ony langer, I wad trail mysel here wi' a pickle ait-meal — and see, there's a bit bonny drapping well that popples that self-same gate simmer and winter — and I wad e'en streek mysel out here, and abide my removal, like an auld dog that trails its useless ugsome carcase into some bush or bracken, no to gie living things a sconner wi' the sight o't when it's dead — Aye, and then, when the dogs barked at the lone farm-stead, the gudewife wad cry, 'Whisht, stirra, that'll be auld Edie,' and the bits o' weans wad up, puir things, and toddle to the door, to pu' in the auld Blue-gown that minds a' their bonny-dies — but there wad be nae mair word o' Edie, I trow." '

Lovel found an asylum for the present on board a small ship of war on the coast, with the commander of which he was acquainted; and a long under-plot occupies much of the succeeding part of the work, by which he is eventually proved to be Major Neville, heir to the Earl of Glenallan, a nobleman long secluded from the world, and residing not far from

Monkbarns. Much of the mystery which hangs over his birth is disclosed by an old woman called Elspeth, the mother of the fisherman Mucklebacket, who has been frequently mentioned in the novel. This old woman, in a state of dotage, had gleams of recollection passing over her mind, with respect to some of the actions of her early days; and these reflections were of a terrible nature, as she had been instrumental in the destruction of Neville's mother, and a party to the unhappiness of his father; who by a series of artful stratagems had been led to suppose that he had married an illegitimate sister. We cannot express much admiration of this horrible and unnatural story; which is not unlike some of the catastrophes of Horace Walpole, the father among us of this species of invention.

The discovery of Major Neville's birth, and the arrival of Sir A. Wardour's son at his home, happened most fortunately at a time when, through the villainy of Dousterswivel, which had ruined the Baronet's fortunes, he saw his house beset with sheriff's officers, and was on the point of leaving his castle for a jail. The effects of such a change of circumstances on a man of a weak mind are well painted in the following scene: but it is necessary to premise that the Antiquary had gone to comfort his neighbour, and to assist him, if possible, on the first notice of his distress.

' In the mean time, Oldbuck taking his nephew by the arm led him into the house, and they were ushered into the presence of Sir Arthur Wardour, who, in a flutter between wounded pride, agonized apprehension, and vain attempts to disguise both under a show of indifference, exhibited a spectacle of painful interest.

' " Happy to see you, Mr. Oldbuck — always happy to see my friends in fair weather or foul," said the poor Baronet, struggling not for composure, but for gaiety, an affectation which was strongly contrasted by the nervous and protracted grasp of his hand, and the agitation of his whole demeanour; " I am happy to see you — You are riding I see — I hope in this confusion your horses are taken good care of — I always like to have my friends' horses looked after — Egad, they will have all my care now, for you see they are like to leave me none of my own — he! he! he! eh, Mr. Oldbuck ?"

' This attempt at a jest was attended by a hysterical giggle, which poor Sir Arthur intended should sound as an indifferent laugh.

' " You know I never ride, Sir Arthur," said the Antiquary.

' " I beg your pardon; but sure I saw your nephew arrive on horseback a short time since. We must look after officers' horses, and his was a handsome grey charger, as I have seen."

' Sir Arthur was about to ring the bell, when Mr. Oldbuck said, " My nephew came on your own grey horse, Sir Arthur."

' " Mine ?"

'"Mine!" said the poor Baronet, "mine was it? then the sun had been in my eyes—Well, I'm not worthy having a horse any longer, since I don't know my own when I see him."

'"Good Heaven," thought Oldbuck, "how is this man altered from the formal solidity of his usual manner!—he grows wanton under adversity—*Sed pereunti mille figuræ*."—He then proceeded aloud; "Sir Arthur, we must necessarily speak a little on business."

'"To be sure," said Sir Arthur;—"but it was so good that I should not know the horse I have ridden these five years, ha! ha! ha!"'

The author deals but little in common characters, though, where he does, he can enter into the varieties of folly as well as of excentricity.—The remaining events of the tale may be easily guessed. Major Neville succeeded in obtaining the hand of Miss Wardour: the Baronet, by the combined means of his son and son-in-law, was rescued from distress: Lord Glenallan's mind was set at rest from the idea of the horrible crimes which he had imputed to himself; and Monkbarns continued to be amused with castra-metation, and quoting (or rather often misquoting) trite scraps of Latin: but old Edie Ochiltree—we had nearly forgotton him, and least of all the *dramatis personæ* does he deserve such treatment. He had no small share in the happy termination of all the vicissitudes of the tale, and now 'he bowls away easily from one friend's house to another, and boasts that he never travels but on a sunny day:' but he shews some symptoms of becoming stationary, being frequently to be found in the corner of a snug cottage, between Knockwinnock (the seat of the Wardours) and Monkbarns, and has often been heard to say, 'This is a gay bean place, and it is a comfort to hae sic a corner to sit in in a bad day.'

Having thus given the outline of the main story, it is necessary to call the reader's attention to an episodical part, which is, we think, the most finished piece of painting in the whole. It is a tragic scene, probably more excellent, and certainly much more interesting, than the comic one relating to the Fairport post-office; and it is drawn from the death of 'young Steenie,' the son of Mucklebacket the fisherman, who was drowned by the upsetting of the boat. Monkbarns attended at the funeral; a custom, it appears, not uncommon among Scotch proprietors, as a mark of kindness to their neighbouring dependants; and the Laird having proceeded to the fisherman's cottage with this benevolent purpose,

'In the inside of the cottage was a scene, which our Wilkie alone could have painted, with that exquisite feeling of nature that characterizes his enchanting productions.

'The body was laid in its coffin within the wooden bed-stead which the young fisher had occupied while alive. At a little distance stood the father, whose rugged weather-beaten countenance, shaded by his grizzled hair, had faced many a stormy night and night-like day. He was apparently revolving his loss in his mind with that strong feeling of painful grief, peculiar to harsh and rough characters, which almost breaks forth into hatred against the world, and all that remains in it, after the beloved object is withdrawn. The old man had made the most desperate efforts to save his son, and had only been withheld by main force from renewing them at a moment, when, without the possibility of assisting the sufferer, he must himself have perished. All this apparently was boiling in his recollection. His glance was directed sidelong towards the coffin, as to an object on which he could not stedfastly look, and yet from which he could not withdraw his eyes. His answers to the necessary questions which were occasionally put to him, were brief, harsh, and almost fierce. His family had not yet dared to address to him a word, either of sympathy or consolation. His masculine wife, virago as she was, and absolute mistress of the family, as she justly boasted herself on all ordinary occasions, was, by this great loss, terrified into silence and submission, and compelled to hide from her husband's observation the bursts of her female sorrow. As he had rejected food ever since the disaster had happened, not daring herself to approach him, she had that morning, with affectionate artifice, employed the youngest and favourite child to present her husband with some nourishment. His first action was to push it from him with an angry violence, that frightened the child; his next, to snatch up the boy and devour him with kisses. "Ye'll be a bra' fallow an ye be spared, Patie, — but ye'll never — never can be — what he was to me! — He has sailed the coble wi' me since he was ten years auld, and there was na the like o' him drew a net betwixt this and Buchan-ness — They say folks maun submit — I shall try."

'And he had been silent from that moment until compelled to answer the necessary questions we have already noticed. Such was the disconsolate state of the father.

'In another corner of the cottage, her face covered by her apron, which was flung over it, sat the mother, the nature of her grief sufficiently indicated by the wringing of her hands, and the convulsive agitation of the bosom which the covering could not conceal. Two of her gossips, officiously whispering into her ear the common-place topic of resignation under irremediable misfortune, seemed as if they were endeavouring to stun the grief which they could not console.'

Monkbarns, on his return from the funeral, called in again at the cottage, and was surprized to find the afflicted father employed in manual labour, mending his boat.

'"I am glad," he said, in a tone of sympathy — "I am glad, Saunders, that you feel yourself able to make this exertion."

‘ “ And what would ye have me to do,” answered the fisher gruffly, “ unless I wanted to see four children starve, because ane is drowned? It's weel wi' you gentles, that can sit in the house, wi' handkerchers at your een when ye lose a friend; but the like o' us maun to our warks again, if our hearts were beating as hard as my hammer.”

‘ Without taking more notice of Oldbuck, he proceeded in his labour, and the Antiquary, to whom the display of human nature under the influence of agitating passions was never indifferent, stood beside him, leaning on his cane, as if watching the progress of the work. He observed more than once the man's hard features, as if by the force of association, prepare to accompany the sound of the saw and hammer with his usual symphony of a rude tune hummed or whistled, and as often a slight twitch of convulsive expression showed that, ere the sound was uttered, a cause for suppressing it rushed upon his mind. At length, when he had patched a considerable rent, and was beginning to mend another, his feelings appeared altogether to derange the power of attention necessary for his work. The piece of wood which he was about to nail on was at first too long; then he sawed it off too short; then chose another equally ill adapted for the purpose. At length, throwing it down in anger, after wiping his dim eye with his quivering hand, he exclaimed, “ There is a curse either on me or on this auld black bitch of a boat, that I have hauled up high and dry, and patched and clouted sae mony years, that she might drown my poor Steenie at the end of them, an' be d—d to her!” and he flung his hammer against the boat, as if she had been the intentional cause of his misfortune. Then recollecting himself, he added, “ Yet what needs ane be angry at her, that has neither soul nor sense? — though I am no that muckle better mysel. She's but a rickle o' auld rotten deals nailed thegither, and warped wi' the wind and the sea — and I am a dour carle, battered by foul weather at sea and land till I am maist as senseless as hersel! She maun be mended though again the morning-tide — that's a thing o' necessity.”

‘ Thus speaking, he went to gather together his instruments and attempt to resume his labour, but Oldbuck took him kindly by the arm. “ Come, come,” he said, “ Saunders, there is no work for you this day — I'll send down Shavings the carpenter to mend the boat, and he may put the day's work into my account — and you had better not rise to-morrow, but stay to comfort your family under this dispensation, and the gardener will bring you some vegetables and meal from Monkbarns.”

‘ “ I thank ye, Monkbarns,” answered the poor fisher; “ I am a plain-spoken man, and hae little to say for mysel; I might hae learned fairer fashions frae my mither lang syne, but I never saw muckle gude they did her; however, I thank ye. Ye were aye kind and neighbourly, whatever folk says o' your being near and close; and I hae often said in thae times when they were ganging to raise up the puir folk against the gentles — I hae often said, ne'er a man should steer a hair touching to Monkbarns while

Steenie and I could wag a finger — and so said Steenie too. And, Monkbarns, when ye laid his head in the grave, (and mony thanks for the respect,) ye saw the mouls laid on an honest lad that like-it you weel, though he made little phrase about it."

' Oldbuck, beaten from the pride of his affected cynicism, would not willingly have had any one by upon that occasion to quote to him his favourite maxims of the Stoic philosophy. The large drops fell fast from his own eyes, as he begged the father, who was now melted at recollecting the bravery and generous sentiments of his son, to forbear useless sorrow, and led him by the arm towards his own home.'

A few words more, and we close an article which has already exceeded its proper bounds.

The character of Monkbarns is not to be considered solely with a reference to his literary pursuits, which are most usually introduced to heighten the humour of the scene, and, although much interwoven with his character regarded morally, leave the latter nevertheless sufficiently open for a single subject of examination. In this view, we find him a man of naturally warm feelings, but at the same time of acquired habits strictly prudential; and, in a conflict between these opposite inclinations, the former are generally victorious. Many inconsistencies, or apparent inconsistencies at least, are the result of a mind so constituted: but, in the event, when the reader takes leave of the Antiquary, condemning him as a tiresome companion in his inveterate habit of prosing, he allows him all the merits of a good and amiable man. — Of Edie Ochiltree we have already said much in commendation; and indeed his strong undefined religious feeling, his shrewdness and simplicity, his pride and his humility, contrasted with but not contradictory to each other, are expressed in a manner which leaves us nothing to desire. He even rises occasionally towards the sublime, like Meg Merrilies, to whom we have compared him. Whether in this respect he be a true copy of nature, or whether art has enabled the author to give to the creatures of his own invention the semblance of nature, we know not: in our more southern region, we have not the originals from which such portraits could be taken.—The old fisherman, Mucklebacket, is pourtrayed by a few bold strokes. A rude, stubborn mind, broken with present affliction, but struggling with itself to obstruct the vent of sorrow, is one of the most terrible scenes which domestic life presents; and it does not derive any factitious interest from the station of the sufferer: indeed the roughness of mind, incidental to such a condition as that of the fisherman, makes the effect doubly strong.

It is not our intention to compare this novel with the two preceding productions by the same author, nor to endeavour to arrange the three in a scale of merit. In any such attempt, our readers, with or without our interference, will follow their own taste, as their inclinations for romance or domestic life, affecting incident or humorous narrative, may happen to predominate. Nor do we wish again to inquire whether Mr. Walter Scott, or one of two other persons whose names have been canvassed in society, be the real author of the three tales: we are satisfied with looking to the performance, without inquiring the name of the writer, if he wishes to conceal it.

Art. VI. *The History of Ireland,* from the earliest Period to the present Time; embracing also a Statistical and Geographical Account of that Kingdom; forming together a complete View of its past and present State, under its Political, Civil, Literary, and Commercial Relations. By Stephen Barlow, A.M. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 1028. 1l. 1s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

We always welcome any publication that can add to our knowlege of the history and circumstances of Ireland, and thus lead to an increase of the sympathies of our countrymen in the claims and the wrongs of our fellow-subjects in the sister kingdom. On this account, we receive with pleasure the volumes before us; and we coincide with Mr. Barlow when he begins his introduction by expressing surprize and regret at the want of a popular history of Ireland, particularly during the last two centuries. He admits that the recent work of Mr. Gordon, and the abridgment of Plowden's history by himself, have each considerable merit, but their plan is different from that which he has formed, and which he conceives most likely to be acceptable to the public. 'I do not,' he adds, 'presume to aspire to the dignity of legitimate history, but I hope for patronage from the utility and instruction which my work will be found to contain. The store of materials was ample; the difficulty lay in selecting and arranging them with adequate skill.' — Mr. B. then proceeds to explain the plan of his book, and describes it as consisting of three parts; I. A Sketch of the History of Ireland down to the present Time. II. A Geographical and Statistical Notice of the Country, abridged, in a great Measure, from Wakefield; and III. A short View of the Literature and Manners of the Irish.

After a few remarks on the various disadvantages inseparable from the condition of a subjugated country, Mr. B. gives us a description of the wildness of the Irish manners in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, taken chiefly from Spenser's interesting account of the inhabitants. In his historical sketch, he declines any notice of the transactions under what the Irish are pleased to call the Milesian dynasty; yet he professes himself a believer in the odd tradition that the monasteries of Ireland contained, in the *fifth century*, men of such piety and learning as to render their country celebrated throughout Christendom. With greater justice, he adds that, the eighteenth century having done more for Ireland than all that went before it, his plan is to pass briefly over the early transactions, and to confine the circumstantial part of his narrative to the time in question. Accordingly, the long period preceding 1715 is discussed in the half of the first volume, while a whole volume is dedicated to the events occuring in the reigns of George I., II., and III.; and the remaining half volume is appropriated to the geographical and literary departments.

The reign of our James I., uninteresting as it was in many respects, deserves the attention of the student of English history for two points, viz. the King's steady maintenance of peace, and his efforts for the amelioration of Ireland. He found that country sunken in disorder and bloodshed by the wars excited in the latter part of the reign of his illustrious predecessor, and was obliged, for a time, to aim at the attainment of tranquillity by force of arms: but in 1605 he passed an act of oblivion and indemnity; a measure which he followed up by the introduction of English and Scots settlers into the large tract of country forfeited in the north by the insurgent Earls, Tyrone and Tyrconnel. Hence the origin of Londonderry, and of that numerous Scotish population which pervades Ulster at the present day.

'James now began to pursue with great vigour his favourite scheme of colonizing Ireland with English settlers, to the utter exclusion of the aboriginal inhabitants, and for the purpose of successfully establishing the reformed religion. The forfeited lands, therefore, were parcelled out among English and Scotch adventurers. The latter were by far the more numerous, and they transplanted with them the seeds of presbyterianism into the northern province of Ulster, where their descendants at this day form a race essentially distinct in physical and moral qualities from the rest of the inhabitants of Ireland. Every precaution was taken to make this new settlement concurrent to the establishment of the new religion. Among the most opulent adventurers were the citizens of London, who obtained a large tract of land upon the lower part of the river Ban, where they rebuilt the town of Derry, and in memory of the place they had quitted they called it Londonderry. It is supposed that of the 511,456 Irish acres which escheated to the crown, 209,800 acres were bestowed upon the Londoners alone; and in a book, which was printed for the better direction of the settlers, it was specially mentioned "that they should not suffer any labourer, that would not take the oath of supremacy, to dwell upon their land."'

Mr. Hume highly extols the wisdom of these measures: but his commendation is declared by Mr. Plowden to be extremely exaggerated, since gross violations of justice were committed in gratifying the colonizing wishes of the King. — We pass over the rest of the 17th century, and its long train of misfortunes to Ireland, under Charles I., Cromwell, and King William. In treating of the reigns of George I. and II., Mr. Barlow maintains that the majority of the Catholics were sincere well-wishers to the Hanoverian succession, and deserved better treatment than they experienced at the hands of Government. After having noticed the exertions of Swift, and the ferment excited by them with regard to Wood's patent, the author comes to a later period; and here he expresses, in very plain terms, his opinion of the eminent dignitary of the church who so much influenced the affairs of Ireland at the close of the reign of George I., and the beginning of that of George II.

'Primate Boulter, who is now to act so conspicuous a part in the history of this country, and whose views and policy have been developed, in his own letters, was unceasingly active to maintain the English ascendancy in Ireland, and to stigmatize as disaffected and disloyal, all, no matter whether Tory, Dissenter, or Papist, who were anxious to preserve the native rights of Ireland unbroken. He now (1727) meditated a bold step. Not one of the oppressive and arbitrary acts of Elizabeth and Anne had gone so far as to deprive the Catholics of their elective franchise. It was thought, at least, that as subjects of the same crown, and called upon to pay their proportion towards the general exigencies of the state, they were entitled to have a voice in the appointment of those who were delegated to watch over their interests.— The Primate, however, with a view to confirm the English ascendancy, and to blot out the last remaining vestige of freedom which still belonged to the degraded Catholic, resolved to disfranchise—what? four-fifths of the population of Ireland! A moderate exercise of arbitrary and oppressive power! — This act of injustice was committed too in a manner which must excite no less the astonishment than the abhorrence of the reader. In a bill that was brought into the Irish commons, (1 Geo. II. c. ix.) professing merely to regulate the election of members of parliament and prevent the irregular proceedings of sheriffs and other officers in electing and returning such members, a clause was silently introduced, in the way of amendment, which underwent no discussion, which excited no attention, and which indeed was unsuspected and unknown; but which quietly and insidiously robbed four-fifths of the people of Ireland, of that which Lord Chief Justice Holt justly denominated the

" noblest birth-right and invaluable privilege of the subject." By this clause, thus clandestinely incorporated with the bill, it was enacted that " no Papist, though not convict, should be entitled or admitted to vote at the election of any member to serve in parliament, as knight, citizen, or burgess, or the election of any magistrate for any city or other town corporate." '

Such was unfortunately the character of almost every measure embraced at this period of our history with regard to the Catholics of Ireland. The plan of compulsion adopted in our own day by Bonaparte was accounted the only safeguard of the Protestant influence in Ireland; and a studied determination seemed to prevail, to deprive the Catholics of all that could excite in them attachment to their country by interesting them in its freedom and prosperity. Yet it deserves to be mentioned to their honour that, when the disaffection of the Scottish Highlanders was productive of so much disquietude, and necessitated so unfortunate a diversion of the military force of the kingdom, the Catholics of Ireland remained as quiet as if they had cherished no resentments which they could desire to gratify.

' At this critical juncture (1745) the Earl of Chesterfield was appointed Lord-lieutenant, and his moderation, good sense, and equity, kept Ireland quiet and steady in its allegiance. This loyalty of the Catholics deserves the more to be noticed, because there was at that time a corps of British Jacobites, consisting of seven Irish regiments, (those of Dillon, Clare, Berwick, Roscommon, Lalley, Bulkeley, and Fitzjames's horse,) and two Scotch, (the Royal Scotch horse and Ogilvie's foot) in the pay of the French monarch, and who considered James Stuart as the rightful king of these realms. At the battle of Fontenoy three of these regiments are said to have turned the fortune of the day in favour of the French; and it is reported, that when George II. heard of this, he exclaimed with much emotion, *Cursed be the laws which deprive me of such subjects!* Though, however, it is certain that there must have been much communication between the individuals serving in this Irish brigade and their relatives in Ireland, it does not appear that the Irish Catholics manifested the slightest disposition to embark in the cause of the Pretender. The truth of this (and nothing that can tend to exalt the character of these oppressed and injured people should be omitted) is remarkably proved by Dr. Curry. " In the year 1762," says he, " upon a debate in the House of Lords about the expediency of raising five regiments of these Catholics for the service of the King of Portugal, Dr. Stone, (then primate,) in an answer to some common-place objections against the good faith and loyalty of these people, which were revived with virulence on that occasion, declared publicly in the House of Lords, that in the year 1747, after that rebellion was entirely suppressed, happening to be in England, he had an opportunity of perusing all the papers of the rebels and their correspondents, which were seized in the custody of Murray, the Pretender's secretary; and that, after having spent much time and taken great pains in examining them, (not without some share of the then common suspicion that there might be some private understanding and intercourse between them and the Irish Catholics,) he could not discover the least *trace*, *hint*, or *intimation* of such *intercourse or correspondence in them*, or of any of the letters favouring or abetting, or having been so much as made acquainted with the designs or proceedings of these rebels; and what, he said, he wondered at most of all was, that in all his researches he had not met with any passage in any of these papers, from which he could infer, that either their Holy Father the Pope, or any of his cardinals, bishops, or other dignitaries of that church, or any of the Irish clergy, had, either directly or indirectly, encouraged, aided, or approved of, the commencing or carrying on of that rebellion." '

A time, we trust, is now arriving, at which the discontent excited by the chief grievance of the Catholics, viz. the compulsory collection of tythes, is about to give place to better feelings. Though, however, the evil will at last be cured, its long continuance is by no means calculated to raise the character of the British government for either wisdom or humanity, in the eye of the historian; and the delay in alleviating the mischief is the more singular, as it would have been a matter of no great difficulty to have found out an expedient calculated to produce an equivalent income without wounding the feelings of the tenantry. The author of the well-known pamphlet intitled "*Past and present State of Ireland*," * after having animadverted on the impolicy of several of the proposed plans, introduced the following scheme:

' "I propose a system, not perfect, perhaps, but preferable. *A poundage upon all rents;* not of a tenth, perhaps not a twentieth, probably of a thirtieth or fortieth.

' "The clergy in great towns are amply and cheerfully paid by a rate on the estimated value of each house. My proposition would improve and extend this system over the whole country.

' "In 1787 an intelligent prelate computed the average of each clergyman's annual income at 133*l*. 6*s*. I will suppose it now to be 250*l*. the benefices fewer than 1200; the ecclesiastical establishment less, therefore, than 300,000*l*. But 6*d*. in the pound, one-fortieth on the rent-roll of Ireland, would produce 500,000*l*. A sum adequate to the payment of ALL the clergy, Protestant, Catholic, and Dissenting.

' "I pass over the details, I trust practicable, to arrive at the results, certainly beneficial — the peasantry relieved, at least appeased;

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* Understood to be Baron Smith, of the Irish Exchequer.

peased; the landlord secured; the Protestant clergy amply indemnified; — the Catholic priesthood — the servants of the British empire, not of Rome, — their power of good increased, of evil destroyed, and their present precarious and illegal livelihoods replaced by a constitutional and honourable provision; a chief cause of animosity eradicated; and the country indulged, improved, perhaps tranquillized, by the extension of a principle already familiar and approved.'—

' " The law has never thoroughly mingled itself with Ireland: there lately were — perhaps still are — districts impervious to the King's writs, castles fortified against the sheriff, and legal estates invaded by force of arms; contumacies, not frequent indeed, but from which an enquirer will deduce, not unfairly, ordinary disrespect for the law. This in civil cases. In criminal — how large a share of our jurisprudence! — witnesses not unfrequently suborned, intimidated, or murdered; juries subdued; felons acquitted: in common transactions, the admininistration by justices of the peace, sometimes partial, generally despised and unsatisfactory. The body — in England so effective — of mayors, bailiffs, and constables, unknown, or known as a jest. Parish offices, sinecures; the great man and the strong man executing, the poor and weak suffering, the law.

' " The blame is not easily apportioned: much is in the pride and folly of the gentry; much in the native perverseness of the people; much in the indifference of the Government; something in an indiscreet nomination of magistrates; more, and most of all, in the exorbitant taxation of legal proceedings, by which the law is become, not a refuge to the poor, but a luxury to the rich. The courts are open to the indigent only as spectators: the peasant, oppressed or defrauded to the amount of 10*l.* cannot buy even a chance of redress in the lottery of the law for less than 60*l.* By victory or defeat, he is equally irremediably ruined. This system *must* be amended — abandoned." '

We have explained in another place (M. R. vol. lxviii. N.S. p. 350.) the singular extent of the duration of Irish parliaments, and the repeated efforts made to abridge it. Until the year 1768, these assemblies, having no definite period of existence, generally continued undissolved till the death of the reigning sovereign: but, the youth and healthful constitution of George III. being such as to place the prospect of any change from that cause at a very great distance, it was deemed expedient by the British ministers to meet at last the wish of the Irish people. The plan of the more artful part of the members of the Irish parliament had been to profess a concurrence in this respect with their countrymen, and to send over to England a bill for limiting the term of their sitting to seven or eight years, under the assurance that this bill would experience the fate awarded to all measures not in correspondence with the views of the British government; and nothing could exceed the surprize of these disinterested gentlemen, when the news came that their bill had received the sanction of the King and his Council.

'Lord Charlemont happened at this time to dine with one of the great parliamentary leaders. A large company, and as Bubb Doddington says of some of his dinners with the Pelhams, much drink and much good humour. In the midst of this festivity the papers and letters of the last English packet, which had just come in, were brought into the room and given to the master of the house. Scarcely had he read one or two of them when it appeared that he was extremely agitated. The company was alarmed. "What's the matter? Nothing, we hope, has happened that ——" — "Happened!" exclaimed their kind host, and swearing most piteously: "happened! the septennial bill is returned!" A burst of joy from Lord Charlemont and the very few real friends of the bill, who happened to be present! The majority of the company, confused, and indeed almost astounded, began, after the first involuntary dejection of their features, to recollect that they had, session after session, openly voted for this bill, with many an internal curse, Heaven knows! But still they had uniformly been its loudest advocates; and therefore it would be somewhat decorous not to appear too much cast down at their own unexpected triumph. In consequence of these politic reflections, they endeavoured to adjust their looks to the joyous occasion as well as they could. But they were soon spared the aukwardness of assumed felicity. "The bill is not only returned," continued their chieftain, "but — but the parliament is dissolved!" — "Dissolved! dissolved! Why dissolved?"—"My good friends, I can't tell you why or wherefore, but dissolved it is, or will be directly."—

'Lord Charlemont took advantage of their silent mood, and quietly withdrew from this groupe of statesmen, than whom a more ridiculous rueful set of personages in his life, he said, he never beheld. The city, in consequence of the intelligence of the evening, was in a tumult of gratitude and applause; illuminations were every where diffused, and our unintentionally victorious senators were obliged, on their return home, to stop at the end of almost every street, and huzza very dismally with a very merry, very patriotic, and very drunken populace.'—

'The return of this octennial bill was followed by a grateful address to the throne, and when the royal assent was given, the people took the horses from the Lord-lieutenant's coach, and drew him to the Castle with enthusiastic exultation.'

It was at the time in question, and in the person of Lord Townshend, that a change was made in the duration of the residence of the Viceroy. Until then, the regular term of his being in office was two years; from which if we deduct the summers passed in England, we shall find an actual residence of eight or ten months: but the plan now adopted was to extend the time to three or four years, and to increase the personal consequence of the Lord-Lieutenant by enlarging his patronage. The secret motive of these measures was to lessen the influence of the great land-holders or borough-proprietors, who were considered as making the Government pay too dearly for the support which they afforded; this object was, in part, accomplished; and the benefit of the people, however little contemplated in the outset, was indirectly promoted by the concessions necessary to effect such a change. More might have been attained, had the popular speakers in the House equalled the men who shewed themselves at the time of the American war and the French Revolution: but the miserable plan of continuing the same parliament for twenty or thirty years together had operated like a bill of exclusion to men of education, and left the people scarcely any defenders of a prudent and enlightened character.

'Towards the close of Lord Townshend's government died Charles Lucas, member for Dublin, a person too much distinguished in the infant struggles of Irish liberty to be passed over without some notice.

'Lucas was a man of bold and ardent nature.* In the year 1743 he first distinguished himself in the corporation of Dublin, which at that time laboured under gross mismanagement. He particularly exclaimed against the board of aldermen: and in this opposition he met a coadjutor in Mr. Digges Latouche, a most intelligent and respectable merchant, but of a temper totally distinct from that of Lucas. During their opposition in the common council, a vacancy happened in the representation of the city of Dublin by the death of Sir James Somerville. Latouche first, and Lucas afterwards, declared themselves candidates. This created a distinct interest between them. In fact they had never been cordially united, and Lucas attacked Mr. Latouche with much intemperate abuse. In less than a year afterwards, the death of Alderman Pearson, the other representative of Dublin, closed their contests, and both would in all probability have been elected, although Sir Samual Cooke and Mr. Charles Burton were opposed to them by the board of aldermen and the Castle-interest, had not the court thought proper to get rid of Lucas at all events. Accordingly, on the second day of the session 1749, complaint was made to the House of Commons of certain seditious writings by Lucas, which were, after some fruitless opposition, unanimously voted highly criminal, the Attorney-general desired to prosecute him, and he himself ordered to Newgate. However, he withdrew to England, which was all that was wanted; and to prevent his return to Ireland he was voted an enemy to his country.

'* See Hardy's Life of Charlemont.'

'He pursued his profession (medicine) in London, and having written an "Essay on Waters," was honored with the support of Dr. Johnson, who, in his review of that publication, recommends him to the notice of the people of England in the following spirited and energetic manner: "The Irish ministers drove him from his native country by a proclamation, in which they charged him with crimes which they never intended to be called to the proof, and oppressed him by methods equally irresistible by guilt and innocence. Let the man, thus driven into exile for having been the friend of his country, be received in every place as a confessor of liberty, and let the tools of power be taught in time, that they may rob, but cannot impoverish." At length he was enabled, by the interposition of some powerful interests, to return to Ireland, when, on the death of George II. he was elected for the city of Dublin, and held that truly respectable situation at the time of his death.

'As a politician he was, as the Duke de Beaufort was called during the time of the Fronde at Paris, *un roi des halles*—a sovereign of the corporations.—Lucas had, in truth, little or no knowledge as a leader in parliament, and his efforts there were too often directed against men whose perfect disregard of him left them at full liberty to pursue their arguments as if nothing had disturbed them. Self-command, whether constitutional or arising from occasional contempt, is a most potent auxiliary.—Yet with all this precipitancy and too frequent want of knowledge, he annexed a species of dignity to himself in the House of Commons which was not without its effect. His infirmities, (for he was always carried into and out of the House, being so enfeebled by the gout that he could scarcely stand for a moment,) the gravity and uncommon neatness of his dress, his grey and venerable locks blending with a pale but interesting countenance, in which an air of beauty was still visible, altogether excited attention; and Mr. Hardy (from whom this account is borrowed) says, he never saw a stranger come into the House without asking who he was?—He had certainly talents, but talents unaided by cultivation. Originality is much. He raised his voice when all around was desolation and silence. He began with a corporation, and he ended with a kingdom; for some of the topics which he suggested, now nearly seventy years ago, such as the octennial bill, and other measures, were of vital magnitude to Ireland. His remains were honoured with a public funeral, and his statue is placed in the Royal Exchange of Dublin.'

In making choice of a Lord-Lieutenant for Ireland, our ministry often looked more to the pleasant manners than to the talents or judgment of that representative of royalty; and indeed a man of great rank, and of a convivial turn, is likely to be highly acceptable to a people more accustomed to give way to the impulse of feeling, than to tax their intellectual powers in analyzing the talents of their ruler. It has frequently happened, however, in consequence, that the viceroys have allowed the transaction of all serious business to devolve on the Secretary, and confined themselves to the ostensible duties of their station; laying claim to nothing beyond an occasional participation with our ministry in the distribution of patronage. Of this character was the Duke of Rutland, who succeeded the Earl of Northington in the beginning of 1784, soon after Mr. Pitt came into office.

'His Grace was young and not conversant in business, but he was amiable, generous, and convivial; and he became, from his first coming here, the favourite of the higher orders of the state, and would have been equally so with the lower, had not one or two questions been agitated directly after his arrival, which in parliament excited no commotion, but were eagerly laid hold on by some untoward spirits without doors to aid the cause of mischief and sedition, which they so perversely maintained. The Duke's court was magnificent; a succession of various entertainments took place, over which the presence of the Duchess of Rutland, then confessedly one of the most beautiful women perhaps in Europe, diffused an animation and radiance totally unexampled. Social pleasures (so congenial to the Irish) were agreeably cultivated, the good cheer of the table was applauded even by its most renowned votaries, and altogether it was a season of much indulgence. His Secretary was Mr. Orde, (afterwards Lord Bolton,) and who attended to business with more assiduity than the delicacy of his health would always permit.'

The topic that principally occupies the latter part of Mr. Barlow's narrative is the Union between Great Britain and Ireland. The opposition made to this measure by the majority of the Irish nation, among whom we must include such virtuous characters as Lord Charlemont, affords a very curious example of the attachment of a people to a separate government, and of their unconsciousness of the benefits to be derived from a consolidation of legislative and commercial interests. Mr. Barlow animadverts with considerable severity on the influence exerted by Government to carry this measure in the Irish parliament. Having recorded the first unsuccessful attempt in the beginning of 1799, he mentions (p. 307.) that ministers had been indefatigable during the summer in creating peers, in lavishing promotions, and in making promises; the result of all which was that the proposition was brought before the House by Lord Castlereagh in February 1800, with a confidence of success.

'His Lordship congratulated the House upon the happy change of sentiment, with respect to that measure which had taken place, though he did not inform them by what means it had been accomplished. He concluded an elaborate speech nearly in the following words: "Having gone through the outline of the plan with as much conciseness as possible, I trust I have proved to every man, who hears me, that the proposal is such a one as it is at once honourable for Great Britain to offer, and Ireland to accept. It is one which will entirely remove from the executive power those anomalies which are the perpetual sources of jealousy and discontent. It is one which will relieve the apprehensions of those who feared that Ireland was, in consequence of a union, to be burthened with the debt of Britain. It is one which by establishing a fair principle of contribution tends to release Ireland from an expence of one million, in time of war, and of 500,000*l.* in time of peace. It is one which increases the resources of our commerce, protects our manufactures, secures to us the British market, and encourages all the produce of our soil. It is one that by uniting all the ecclesiastical establishments, and consolidating the legislatures of the empire, puts an end to religious jealousy and removes the possibility of a separation. It is one that places the great question, that has so long agitated the country, upon the broad principles of imperial policy, and divests it of all its local difficulties. It is one that establishes such a representation for the country as must lay asleep for ever the question of parliamentary reform, which, combined with our religious divisions, has produced all our distractions and calamities." At a very late hour the House divided, when there were 158 for, and 115 against the Union. In the House of Lords, the Earl of Clare led on the Unionists, on the 10th of Feb. and at the conclusion of a long and important speech he declared "that if he lived to see that measure completed, to his latest hour he should feel an honourable pride in reflecting on the share he might have had in contributing to effect it." — The division in the Lords was 75 for, and 26 against: shewing that the British cabinet had more strength there than in the Commons.'

It will appear, from our concluding remarks, that we find ourselves under the necessity of passing several animadversions on Mr. Barlow as an author: but we are justified in bearing a satisfactory testimony to the disposition with which he writes; a disposition favorable to the cause of liberality and free inquiry, without discovering any symptom of disaffection to Government. We have no hesitation in classing under this character his animadversions on the associations known by the name of Orange-lodges:

'Mr. Grattan drew an animated picture of the hostile spirit which actuated these persons, "who," said he, "committed massacre in the name of God, and exercised despotic power in the name of liberty." There seems to be little doubt that many wanton barbarities and much unnecessary cruelty were exercised by the Protestants towards the Catholics. They were often tried by committees and sent on board a tender, or to a recruiting officer as deserters; and these evils were greatly aggravated by the conduct of the magistracy of Armagh, several of whom refused to take the examination of the injured Catholics. It was generally believed that 7000 Catholics had been forced or burned out of the county of Armagh, and that the ferocious banditti who had expelled them had been encouraged, connived at, and protected by Government.

'About this time the United Irishmen gained considerable strength from their coalition with the Defenders, particularly those of the counties of Down and Antrim. The connexion afterwards extended to other counties. There were a few points respecting which the Unionists and the Defenders were unanimous: but, generally, the former aimed at things beyond the views of the latter, who also wanted that complete organization of dependent and subordinate committees, &c. which the United Irishmen had established. Their junction, however, tended to give them this, and also engaged them in the prosecution of plans far different from what formed the original objects of their association, which was chiefly confined to an amelioration of the condition of the Catholics, while the United Irishmen projected a separation from England altogether. The whole number of the United body amounted in 1796 to 500,000 men, the greater part now trained to the use of arms. Many outrages were committed in the north by the military who were sent there to preserve order and peace; and what greatly irritated the disaffected was the avowed protection granted by Government to any individual who committed the most wanton excesses upon the Defenders or United Irishmen. At the assizes of Armagh, for instance, Colonel Sparrow was tried and found guilty of murdering a Mr. Lucas: he was called up to receive sentence, when he produced his Majesty's pardon to the court, and was instantly liberated. The Orange-men also were specially countenanced by Government.

'It was necessary, however, that some decided course should be adopted; and the formation of armed corps of yeomanry was, this year (1796) encouraged. The Catholics were scarcely permitted to join these associations.'

In treating of the literature of Ireland, Mr. B., without professing to enumerate names, is credulous enough to lend his assent to the reported celebrity of the clergy of Ireland in the dark ages. We are told that, not contented with enlightening their own countrymen, these benevolent sages extended the rays of illumination among the Anglo-Saxons, and continued to be the preceptors of the Scots until the thirteenth century. How cruel it must have been in them to withdraw their fostering care at the time when, of all others, their northern pupils stood most in need of it, and were about to be exposed to all the trials of foreign war and internal dissension! Without dwelling farther on these mysterious traditions, we shall select a list of names which fortunately confer on their country an undisputed title to fame.

'The modern literature of Ireland boasts of many names which need not fear comparison with those of any other country; and as a proof of this assertion we select the following from among many.

Usher, a learned chronologer, linguist, and biblical critic: Boyle, Sir J. Denham, Farquhar, Congreve, Sir Richard Steel, Sir Hans Sloane, Bishop Berkley, Lord Orrery, Parnell, Swift, Goldsmith, Sterne, Lord Charlemont, Kirwan, the celebrated mineralogist, Bickerstaff, Macklin, Canning, (the present distinguished statesman and writer,) Brinsley Sheridan, Grattan, Burke, Dermody, Mrs. Brooke, Mrs. Sheridan, Miss Edgeworth, and Dean Kirwan, &c. &c. This is surely an honourable list.'

The rest of the chapter appropriated to literature is occupied with specimens of the speeches of the two veteran Irish orators of the present day, Grattan and Curran; and to these extracts is subjoined an appendix, containing several of the papers that occurred at the time of the disputes about the regency in 1789, with others relative to the union in 1800. The union-act also is given at full length.

Though we have been able to extract some interesting passages from Mr. Barlow, we do not consider ourselves as justified in closing our report of his work in terms of high commendation. Many of the best paragraphs in it are borrowed almost literally from other writers, and no part of it gives evidence of research into original documents. In fact, it deserves no other name than that of a compilation, put together, we admit, in the spirit of liberality, but possessing as a composition very little claim to public approbation. What are we to say of the accuracy of a writer who asserts (vol. i. p. 350.) 'that in 1735 the cultivated land of Ireland was not *one-hundredth part* of what it is at present?' Or what are we to think of a man of letters, who uses so inelegant an expression as (vol. ii. p. 299.) 'the measure *was being* prosecuted?' In treating of the character of Mr. Pitt, he says, (vol. ii. p. 169.), 'a greater man never graced the annals of any nation; by the vigour of his single arm he saved his country from utter perdition:' yet, in speaking of Lord Fitzwilliam's short administration, Mr. B. says of that statesman, that he 'used secret influence and preconcerted measures to thwart all his Lordship's endeavours.' We might also point out various periods of Irish history, in which Mr. B., had he possessed the requisite industry, might have introduced a variety of instructive and interesting particulars. — Among the minor observations belonging to a critical notice, we may remark that several errors occur in the typography, such as George III. for George II. in the very outset of vol. i. —The decorations of the book are sufficiently appropriate, consisting of a frontispiece illustrative of some passages in Irish history; a view of Dublin; and portraits of Lord Charlemont and Mr. Grattan.

Art. VII. *A Letter to the Right Honourable the Earl of Selkirk,* on his Settlement at the Red River, near Hudson's Bay. By John Strachan, D.D. Rector of York, Upper Canada. 8vo. pp. 76. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1816.

The public have lately learned from the news-papers the disasters that have befallen detachments of the settlers who were advancing into the interior of North America, in order to establish a colony in a province recommended, and even purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company, by Lord Selkirk. His Lordship became known to the world as an author about twelve years ago, by an "Essay on Emigration;" which explained so clearly the situation of the emigrants from the Highlands of Scotland, and coincided so much with the feelings of those who were unwilling that our countrymen going abroad should form an addition to the population of the United States, as to attract a considerable share of approbation to the views and projects of the writer. Prince Edward's Island, at the mouth of the river St. Laurence, became the first object of the Earl's colonizing experiments, and was chosen for its vicinity to British America and because it has the advantage of an insular situation: but, with the usual ardour of projectors, Lord S. has since turned his views to other quarters, and has been occupied, particularly since 1813, in inducing emigrants to penetrate into the very distant inland region on the banks of the Red River, the access to which is from the great inland-sea so long known by the inappropriate name of Hudson's Bay.

Dr. Strachan, a clergyman settled at York in Upper Canada, knowing by experience the hardships attendant on attempts at colonizing an inhospitable region, lost no time in warning those who were likely to be tempted to emigrate, against lending a favourable ear to Lord Selkirk's proposals. He observes, in substance:

'I read your Lordship's book on emigration with pleasure as far as it regarded the style, and the narrative of the settlers on Prince Edward's Island; but no attraction in point of composition could secure the general plan of that settlement from my severest reprobation. Your Lordship makes a merit of excluding American settlers; while in fact your terms were such as no American would accept. A still greater censure is applicable to your second attempt at colonization; I mean that in Upper Canada, in which you received from Government 200 acres of land for each settler, while you were bound to grant him only fifty, a portion of ground which, even with the assistance you afforded, is too small for a family. I am at the same time ready to acquit your Lordship of any profit as yet in either speculation, nay you may have actually supposed that the conditions which gov offered were very liberal; but what shall I find to say in vindication of your offering worse conditions to emigrants going to an infinitely worse situation?'

The author next proceeds to discuss, paragraph by paragraph, the prospectus of the Red River colony. Lord S. had stated that an extensive tract of land in this direction was to be sold by the Hudson's Bay Company for the trifling sum of 10,000l., and that a farther payment of 10,000l. would suffice for the establishment of a considerable colony, which money was to be raised by subscription, the shares to be of 100l. each: that the soil and climate were such as would have rendered the province in question very valuable, had not the remoteness of the situation operated to discourage settlers from going thither: but that which would be impracticable to a few would be easy to a collective number, whose strength would be sufficient both to defend them from the neighbouring Indians, and to divide their various tasks so as to become mutually subservient to each other's wants; and that the cultivation of hemp would be a principal object in the new settlement, while a still more beneficial one would be fine wool, the immense plains without wood in the neighbourhood promising to open a very favourable field for a breed of Merinos, —an advantage which the colonists of the maritime provinces cannot attain without the very troublesome process of clearing away forests.

Such is the case on the part of his Lordship: but he has omitted, says Dr. S., to obviate some very serious objections. In what manner is this remote inland-settlement to communicate with the sea? If the settlers adopt, as suggested by his Lordship, the plan of sending goods to Hudson's Bay, there must be a transport of 7 or 800 miles through a wintry region, where the waters are navigable only three months in the year. Again, if they attempt to communicate with the ocean by the river St. Laurence, they will find the distance from their abode to Montreal not much short of 2000 miles, chiefly by water indeed, but interrupted frequently by fatiguing 'portages,' or carrying-places. The result is that the only eligible mode of establishing a communication with the ocean is by the Mississippi, the upper part of that river becoming navigable at a distance of little more than 300 miles (of land travelling) from the projected settlement. This spot being in lat. 48. and 49. and the route just mentioned leading to the southward, the climate becomes better the farther it is followed: but, as the Americans claim the whole country to the upper part of the Mississippi, a defenceless settlement on their frontier would ere long be added to the number of their possessions. Hemp, being a bulky article, cannot be raised so as to defray carriage to the sea, and afford any return to the cultivator. Wool would be less unpromising: but we are yet to learn whether the coarse grass in the plains of the Red River would prove suitable to the Merinos, which are said to owe the fineness of their wool to their changing their climate according to the variation of season, by going from the mountains in Spain to the plains. Supposing, however, the sheep to succeed, still the outlet by the Mississippi is the only one that would answer even for wool. It is idle to expect for ages a market on the spot, the distance and forbidding climate being likely to prove very serious obstacles to the increase of the population. To all these drawbacks we must add the hazard of exciting the jealousy of the Indians, (who are very tenacious on the score of their hunting-grounds,) and of exposing the settlers either to sudden death by violence or to eventual starvation by having their harvest burned before their eyes.

Dr. S. proceeds (pp. 50, 51.) to sum up these and other objections in long and formidable array. If emigration is to take place on an extensive scale, let the families, he adds, be transported to the Canadas, where they will find themselves in the neighbourhood of friends, and will have doubled their numbers by the time at which they would, in all probability, be approaching to extinction on the Red River:

> 'The British Government gives to those emigrants who come out under their protection to the Canadas,
>
> 'One or two hundred acres of excellent land — for nothing;
>
> 'Farming utensils — for nothing;
>
> 'Provisions for one year — for nothing;
>
> 'They are under the protection of the laws, and enjoy all the privileges of British subjects;
>
> 'They have access to religious instruction,
>
> 'The means of educating their children,
>
> 'The best medical aid;
>
> 'They are in no danger from the Indians;
>
> 'They have a good market for their produce;
>
> 'Their supplies of cloathing and other necessaries can be obtained at a moderate expence.'

Still, Dr. S. must not be supposed to have written the present tract with the view of prompting persons to leave even the more uncomfortable parts of Great Britain in quest of a Trans-Atlantic abode:

> '1. I would strenuously advise those who can live comfortably, to remain where they are: for the greatest success will not be an equivalent for the miseries they must suffer before this success is realized. Even then they will be dissatisfied, and they will look back with regret on the comforts they have left.

'2. I would even advise such as are able to rub along and preserve their independence, to remain at home.'—

'3. To such as are determined to emigrate, I would say, Every thing that is possible will be done for their accommodation. But they must not be too sanguine: for after every thing is done, they will require the exertion of the most persevering industry, and the firmest resolution, to realize their wishes, and to support them under the many difficulties that cannot be removed.'

The pamphlet concludes with a postscript written at the time when, from intelligence just received, the projected settlement was considered to have been relinquished. Several refugees from the Red River having arrived at Dr. S.'s residence at York, in company with the fur-traders who traverse these vast regions in quest of a valuable and easily transported commodity, an opportunity was afforded for receiving the depositions of the former with regard to the hardships which they had experienced in the attempt to accomplish Lord Selkirk's project. These statements are appended by Dr. S. to his work, and afford a powerful support to his arguments.— Our chief objection to the pamphlet is an unusual, and, in our opinion, unnecessary degree of vehemence. We are far from accusing Dr. S. of acting in connection with the North West Company of fur-traders, but we cannot help adding that the same reasons might have been urged with equal force in much calmer language; and they would evidently have been much more impressive, had he bestowed a little pains in arranging and condensing them. The tract in its present state, though short, is deficient in perspicuity; since the author passes from one topic to another without placing under his reader's eye all that belongs to a particular question, and makes no scruple of resuming the argument on the old subject after a lapse of several pages. He would have been more likely also to have produced conviction, had he assailed Lord Selkirk on the score not of rapacity, but of sanguine or even extravagant calculation.

Art. VIII. *An Attempt to ascertain the Author of the Letters published under the Signature of Junius.* By the Rev. J. B. Blakeway, M.A. F.S.A. 8vo. pp. 72. 3s. Longman and Co.

Art. IX. *The Sequel of an Attempt to ascertain the Author of the Letters published under the Signature of Junius*, in which that hitherto impenetrable Secret is, it is presumed, fully disclosed. By the Author of the "Attempt." 8vo. pp. 30. Longman and Co. 1815.

These tracts, without altogether fulfilling the promise of their titles, must be allowed to be much more interesting than the others which the late edition of the letters of Junius (in 3 vols. 8vo. reported in M. R. Vol. lxxi.) has successively called forth. The writer gives his name without hesitation, and is evidently actuated by none of those book-making calculations which may justly be suspected to have stimulated several of his brother-pamphleteers. He commences by adverting to the various claims brought forwards in former years for the authorship of these celebrated Letters; and he fully agrees with the editor of the late enlarged publication of them, that it is in vain to ascribe them to Mr. Dunning, Mr. Burke, Single-speech Hamilton, Mr. Samuel Dyer, or any of the others mentioned in the introduction to the edition in question. He gives equally cogent reasons for rejecting the absurd pretensions lately set up for the Marquis of Lansdowne, and other candidates. The title of Mr. Glover he admits (Sequel, p. 7.) to stand on better ground, as far at least as the keenness of political feeling and the boldness of style are concerned: but other circumstances connected with his place of residence, his hand-writing, and his facilities of communication with the press, — all necessary to complete the chain of proof, — are wanting.

After these preliminary remarks, we have a series of animadversions on the compositions and character of Junius; and here Mr. B. holds forth to censure, and we may almost say to condemnation, many of the passages in which that virulent writer evidently gave too great a loose to the passions of a mind which all must allow to have been tinctured with malignity. The passages are extracted partly from the "Letters" themselves, and partly from the recently published correspondence of Junius with his printer. The most surprizing circumstance in the whole of this mysterious affair is that, when the lapse of many years had to all appearance dispelled danger, the writer or his relatives should not have been induced to come forwards and assert a title to the fame conferred by the public on a work universally read and extolled. This, says Mr. B., (p. 25.) affords a presumption that Junius was some person to whom a more than common share of infamy would have attached on the disclosure being made; and that, to the malignity discovered by the "Letters" themselves, would be added a charge of shameful duplicity in the manner of giving them to the public. Such a characteristic, he thinks, would apply to the well-known Mr. Horne Tooke, whose name is introduced very conspicuously in a controversy with Junius towards the close of the "Letters;" and chiefly, as Mr. B. imagines, with the view of diverting the public from the suspicion that he himself was the writer of these celebrated compositions. In our lxxxist Vol. (O. S.) p. 466., we briefly

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mentioned a pamphlet by Mr. Thicknesse, in which the same conjecture as to Mr. Tooke was promulgated.

John Horne was born in 1736, received his education at Eton, and went to St. John's College, Cambridge, in 1754. He appears to have been very early distinguished for superior parts; and being urged by his friends, or by the necessity of obtaining a speedy provision, he took orders, and was licensed to the curacy of Brentford in October 1760. He was always, however, averse from his profession, and soon fell into habits by no means calculated to make him useful in the discharge of its duties. In 1767 he travelled into France, became immersed at Paris in all the dissipations of that metropolis, and cultivated an intimacy with Wilkes, on whose moral character it is superfluous to comment. From this time forwards, he embarked on the troubled sea of politics, and continued to fill a prominent place in the public eye, both when co-operating with Wilkes, and subsequently when he had ceased to be numbered among Mr. W.'s supporters. During the years passed in the publication of the letters of Junius, Mr. Horne resided either at Brentford or in Westminster, and had the means of hearing a number of anecdotes connected with the court both by his vicinity to Kew, and by the circumstance of having a relative (Sequel, p. 19.) in a situation which brought him into habits of intimacy with the Royal household. This fact deserves particular attention, when we recollect how much stress is laid, in Woodfall's late edition, on the quickness with which his invisible correspondent obtained notice of reports conveyed to court. The knowlege of law discovered by Junius is another circumstance of consequence; Mr. Horne having, it is well known, been in the habit of reading extensively in that line, and having at one time intended to adopt the legal profession. The Benchers of the Inner Temple, however, refused to receive him into their society; and, as he attributed this opposition to the advice of Lord Mansfield, Mr. B. finds in this disappointment a satisfactory reason for the virulence with which Junius attacked the Judge.

In support of his argument, Mr. Blakeway proceeds to state (p. 40.) that Horne Tooke, like Junius, was never cordially connected with any party; and that the rupture of the former with Mr. Wilkes took place when the style of the Letters of Junius indicated a corresponding change of sentiment. Junius choosing to represent himself in his printed compositions as a man in years, and in his private letters to Woodfall as a person of rank and fortune, Mr. B., by a course of reasoning which many will suspect to partake of refining, concludes that these allegations were introduced for the purpose of giving a false direction to the inquisitiveness of his printer and the public. A farther application of the same kind of argument seems to him (pp. 58. *et seq.*) sufficient to explain the grand difficulty, viz. that which arises from the epistolary controversy carried on at the end of the letters of Junius by that invisible combatant with Mr. Horne. The charges and sarcasms published in this manner against Mr. Horne are, in Mr. B.'s opinion, nothing more than most men will venture to say of themselves when assured that the unfavourable impression will not be of long duration; and in the present case it is well known that the replies of Mr. Horne amounted to a satisfactory vindication.

Mr. Blakeway makes no attempt to strengthen his argument by a comparison of the style of Junius with the avowed productions of Horne Tooke: but he dwells (p. 64.) with considerable emphasis on the circumstance that the private correspondence of Junius with Mr. Woodfall never appeared till *after the decease of Mr. T.*; although the demise of Mr. W. the father had taken place six years before, and the lapse of forty years since the publication of the "Letters" seemed to have removed all necessity for farther delay.

'The time of Junius's appearance as an author, April 1767, *synchronizes* exactly with the commencement of Mr. Horne's political existence. "The life of Mr. Horne," says Wilkes, or one of his adherents, in a letter written December 31st, 1770, (*i. e.* after their violent rupture,) "began, as I understand, about *four years ago*, when he was produced to the world as the friend of Mr. Wilkes, and as such received a degree of countenance and favour which his merit or abilities would never have entitled him to." The interval between April 1767, and December 1770, could not be more correctly described than as *about four years ago*. Is not the ardour of Junius, too, more like the character of a man of Horne's time of life, — *calidus juventa*, — than that of an hoary veteran like Glover?'—

'Besides the facilities for accurate and early information of what passed in the interior of the royal household, which Mr. Horne possessed, from the vicinity of Brentford to Kew, on which I have already dwelt, he had others, of which I was not then apprised. His sister was married to Dr. Demaimbray, a native of Switzerland, "who taught the King spelling and the mathematics," says Wilkes contemptuously. He was, I believe, his Majesty's instructor in astronomy, and keeper of the Royal Observatory at Kew. It was, I presume, from this interest that Mr. Horne, upon his return to England towards the end of 1764, "received a promise,"— they are his own words,— "that he should speedily be appointed chaplain to his Majesty, through the nominal application of the Duke of ———, with a prospect of such other particular preferment as was sufficient to satisfy his wishes;" and from this gentleman, who, by virtue of his office, enjoyed such frequent opportunities of conversing with his Majesty, Mr. Horne might derive much of the information of which Junius makes such a display in his correspondence both private and public.'—

'It is one advantage, which the hypothesis I have endeavoured to establish possesses over every other, that it affords a complete solution of the difficulty, so insurmountable upon any other supposition, that this celebrated author has never since been tempted to disclose himself. It is true, that in the light in which I regard Junius, no genuine honour could accrue to any one from being known as the writer: but since

——— "Tanto major famæ sitis est, quam
Virtutis,"———

it is certainly extraordinary that, when all dread of a prosecution or a challenge was removed, (and time has long ago removed them,) the writer never came forward and established his claim. Mr. Horne, and Mr. Horne alone, if he were the man, could never do this without a complete forfeiture of character; and therefore this fact must be taken as another presumption in favour of my conjecture.

'Yet even Mr. Horne at times appears to have been on the verge of discovery, to have laboured with the mighty secret, and to have been deterred from disclosure only by some most powerful motive, such as I have imagined for him. When Mr. Boyd was first announced to the world as Junius, Mr. T. B., a gentleman well known, and an intimate friend of Mr. Horne, carried to him one day the publication in which that fact was stated; and after the customary salutations, said, "Mr. Horne, I have got something in my pocket which will entertain you."—"What is it?" said Horne.—"Why, a book which professes to prove who Junius was."—"Well," said Horne, "who do they say he was?"—"Boyd," replied Mr. B.—"Pooh," said Horne, with a contemptuous smile, "Junius is still living;—but," added he, after a moment's pause, and, as it were upon reflection, "I am not going to tell you who he is." This I had, through two gentlemen of undoubted credit, from Mr. B. himself, who is yet alive. The following was told me by the gentleman himself who was a party in the dialogue. He had occasion to visit Mr. H. Tooke at Wimbledon, about six weeks before his decease, upon an affair of business. He found him alone, and in bed. After the affair which had brought him down had been discussed, they discoursed on various subjects, and at length came to Junius, on which Mr. Horne expatiated, particularly on the danger which would even now await the man who should avow himself to be the author: "No one," he said, "could even now do so with safety; not even," added he, "if he were so old a man as myself." I have no doubt that these two occasions were far from being the only ones in which Mr. H. thus trembled on the threshold of avowal: those who were admitted to his familiarity could add, I am persuaded, many anecdotes similar to those which I have related; for a very general belief prevailed, I find, among such persons, that Mr. Horne was really the man. When Mr. W., after the conversation I have just mentioned, returned below stairs to the ladies, Mr. H.'s daughters, and Mr. Henry Clifford, the well-known barrister, who was sitting with them, they asked him how he found Mr. Horne? Mr. W. expressed his surprise at his spirits and vivacity, and strength of mind, under so long and hopeless a confinement, and related the conversation they had held on the subject of Junius. "Well, but," said C., "you know, I suppose, who Junius was." — "No, indeed," replied W., "I do not." — "Why, rejoined the other, "we all here say that Mr. Horne was the author of Junius's Letters."' *

We cannot help expressing a wish that Mr. B. had entered more fully into the reasons for questioning the supposition advanced in the late edition of Junius, that Lord George Sackville was the writer of these much contested letters. The controversy seems now to lie between his Lordship, Mr. Glover, and Mr. Tooke, with less serious objections perhaps to the last than to either of the others. Nothing is more wonderful than that an individual, so well acquainted with the public characters of the day, and so familiar with current transactions, should not have been designated either then or subsequently with greater confidence. The range of conjecture could not be wide, for how few men were capable of either adducing the arguments, or giving them to the public in the style of Junius? The following passage explains the precautions with which this singular character contrived to environ himself:

'When the printer had any thing to impart which it was expedient that the author should know, he inserted a signal, as the word "Letter," "C. in the usual place," or some other short and significant token, in a corner of his paper. It had been previously agreed, that any communication for the author should be left at the bar of a particular coffee-house, (at one time the New Exchange, at another the Somerset, or Munday's in Maiden Lane,) under cover of some name judiciously chosen; not so common as to incur the danger of being inadvertently employed by any one else, nor so extraordinary as to excite observation (generally William Middleton or John Fretley); and they were called for either by the invisible agent himself, or by some chairman whom he casually met in the street, and directed to meet him again in another part of the town. Notwithstanding all this caution, there was occasionally some difficulty in conducting this part of the correspondence.

'* Mr. Stephens writes, that he was present when one of the company asked Horne Tooke if he knew the author of Junius. "On the question being put, he immediately crossed his knife and fork on his plate, and assuming a stern look, replied, "I do." *His manner, tone, and attitude, were all too formidable to admit of any further interrogatories.*" Life of H. Tooke, by Stephens, ii. 358.'

respondence. The waiter at one of the coffee-houses endeavoured at one time to obtain a sight of the person; I suppose by following the chairman; this produced a change of coffee-house; from which, however, the correspondence, after some time, again returned to the original place, till it was a second time rendered impracticable by the continued curiosity of the indefatigable waiter.'

Of Mr. Blakeway it remains to be observed that he writes with little attention to method, and allows himself sometimes to lay stress (pp. 30. 44.) on trifling or imaginary arguments. Still he discovers a decided disposition to fair and temperate reasoning; and the chief animadversion that we have to make on his pamphlets relates to his singular mode of concluding them, the last page of the "Sequel" closing with a protestation of the purity of his motives and of his courage in vindicating them, which would be much more suitable to the egotism of a French *aventurier* than to the modest style of an English clergyman.

ART. X. *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, published by the Medical and Chirurgical Society of London. Vol. V. 8vo. pp. 456. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN a short preface, the editors inform the public of the increasing prosperity of this Society. 'The communications,' they say, 'have been ample and interesting: the correspondence of the Society has increased in extent and importance, and one of the great departments of the State has, with a degree of liberality and public spirit, which the President and Council have great pleasure in acknowleging, imparted to the Society, for the purpose of publication, various important documents relative to diseases in the army.'

The first paper, by Dr. Watt of Glasgow, contains an account of a *Case of periodical Jactitation, or Chorea,* which is so extremely singular that, were it not a narrative of a recent transaction, and related with every circumstance of names and dates, we should at once set it down as a fiction, or a gross exaggeration. A girl of 10 years old, of good abilities, and without any apparent cause, was seized with severe head-ache and vomiting; and when, after some duration, the pain abated in its violence, she manifested what appeared an irresistible propensity to whirl round on her feet like a top. After some time, this motion ceased, and she then began to turn round like a roller, moving rapidly from one end of the bed to the other. Discontinuing this motion also, she next adopted a more violent and singular method of tossing the body.

'She now lay on her back, and by drawing her head and heels nearly together, bent herself up like a bow, then allowing them to separate, her buttocks fell with considerable force on the bed. She lay extended on her back for a moment and then repeated the same thing, and continued to do so at the rate of ten or twelve times in a minute, for six hours at first, but gradually increasing, she at last continued it for fourteen hours a day. This motion continued for about five weeks, and was succeeded by another entirely different.

'She was then seized with a propensity to stand on her head in the following manner: resting upon her knees and elbows, she placed the crown of her head a little farther down in the bed than the pillow; she then elevated the trunk and lower extremities directly to the roof of the bed, and rested her weight partly on the occiput, but chiefly on the nape of the neck and shoulders; the chin touching, and seeming rather to rest on the top of the sternum; as soon as the body was elevated in this manner, all muscular exertion seemed to be withdrawn, and it fell down as if dead, the knees first striking the bed, and then the buttocks striking the heels. This was no sooner done, than she instantly mounted up as before, and continued to do so from twelve to fifteen times in a minute, for fifteen hours a day.'

Nothing that could be contrived, in the way of medicines or mechanical restraint, was of the least avail in stopping these extraordinary proceedings; and they at length ceased without any obvious cause. With respect to her mental faculties, we are informed that,

'Since her recovery, innumerable attempts have been made to ascertain if she recollects what passed during her illness, and what ideas she entertained at the time, but she has always shown the utmost reluctance to speak on the subject. She has however on various occasions, especially among her companions, inadvertently mentioned so many circumstances which occurred during her illness, that her friends have no doubt of her remembering distinctly every thing that happened, even when she was at the worst.'

In the second paper, Dr. Denmark gives a *Case of Abscess in the Brain*, the chief peculiarity of which was the supervention of the malady so late as a year after an injury had been received on the skull, which at the time appeared to produce very little inconvenience.—The singular disease of *Hemeralopia, or Night-Blindness*, forms the subject of the next essay, by Mr. Bampfield. As the name implies, it begins by a total loss of vision during the night, so that 'the patient is unable to discriminate the largest objects after sunset or by moonlight; he gropes his way like a blind man, stumbles against any person or thing placed in his footsteps, and finally, after a longer lapse of time, he cannot perceive any object distinctly, by the brightest candle-light.' No immediate cause can be assigned for this affection, but it appears to be generally connected with a seafaring life and a warm climate. It is cured, according to the author, by a succession of small blisters to the temples, aided by cathartics. —The next two papers are on the removal of extraneous *Cartilaginous Substances from the Cavity of the Knee-joint*, by Dr. J. Clark, and *from the Elbow-joint*, by Mr. Coley. The operations were performed without any particular difficulty, and the cure was easily effected.

The '*Account of a chemical Examination of the Urine and Serum of the Blood of a Person who had been taking large Quantities of Soda*,' by Dr. Bostock, informs us that 'the patient began with ℥ss. of the subcarbonate of soda daily, which she progressively increased to ℥iss. ℥ij. ℥iiss. and finally to ℥iij. She was not, however, able to persevere in this quantity for more than a few days, in consequence of the vomiting which it excited, but she continued to take ℥iiss. daily, for a considerable length of time.' The fluids were found to be much changed in their chemical nature; the urine was strongly alkaline, and contained the muriate of ammonia; while the serum had its constitution still more affected. It is remarked that, 'notwithstanding the alkaline nature of this blood, it was in a highly inflamed state.' — In the next paper, Mr. Chevalier relates an account of the *Laceration of the internal Coat of the Stomach and Duodenum by vomiting*, which seemed to be excited simply by over-distension of the stomach. The patient died.

Some interesting observations are furnished by Mr. H. Earle, on the *Contractions which sometimes occur after extensive Burns or Ulcerations.* They are occasionally so considerable as to constitute a great deformity, and to destroy the use of the parts, and are generally attributed to the inattention of the surgeon: but the author regards them as the 'result of a natural process which follows cicatrization.'

> 'This process consists in an absorption of the granulations on which the new skin has been formed; by which the cicatrix is made to occupy a much smaller extent than the originally ulcerated surface. Perhaps it would be speaking more correctly to say that the granulations which are at first florid and extremely vascular, after having deposited the new skin, receive a smaller proportion of blood, become paler and diminished in bulk, and consequently occupy much less surface for the new skin.'

In a case of this description, which was brought under his care, Mr. Earle removed the whole of the cicatrix, afterward bringing together the sides of the wound, as much as he could, by adhesive plasters; and thus the portion of the skin, which had a tendency to the morbid action, was exchanged for a healthy wound, and the cure was accomplished. — Dr. Cheston, of Gloucester, relates a case of *a Fœtus retained in the Uterus 52 Years after the usual Period of Utero-gestation.* The following are some of the leading facts:

'In the third year after the birth of her last child, Mrs. C. considered herself again pregnant, and felt in every respect as in her former pregnancies. The motions of the child were lively; she had milk in her breasts; and as her labour seemed to come on, she felt the same kind of pains as before, though in a slighter degree, and with less bearing down, or effort for the birth. The pains of child-birth left her about the third day, and she continued in a very weak distressed state for full three months afterwards, when she gradually recovered her strength, and from that time had found but little diminution in size.'

The patient lived to her 80th year. On examining the parts after death, the uterus was found in an ossified state; 'very much resembling a human cranium of a middle size, but round rather than oblong, weighing with its contents, three pounds, one ounce, and four drachms.' The fœtus itself, although considerably changed from what might be supposed to have been its original state, was yet so far perfect that its head and some of its limbs could be very distinctly recognized.

An Account of some Diseases of the Toes and Fingers, with Observations on their Treatment, by Mr. Wardrop. These diseases are inflammation of the soft parts surrounding the nail of the toes, ulceration at the root of the nail, corns, and chilblains; diseases, it is true, not of the first magnitude, but often so troublesome as to impair very considerably the comfort of the patient. — A paper on the *Causes which destroy the Fœtus in Utero,* by Dr. Stewart, illustrates the good effects of opium, when the miscarriage appears to be in any way connected with an affection of the bowels. — We have next a case of the disease which was described in the last vol. of these Transactions by Dr. Farre, under the title of *Cynanche-laryngea,* by Mr. Wilson, in which bleeding and blistering appeared to act very favourably on the complaint. To this paper succeeds a valuable essay by Mr. Lawrence, intitled, '*Account of a Child born without a Brain, which lived four Days; with a Sketch of the principal Deviations from the ordinary Formation of the Body; Remarks on their Production; and a View of some Physiological Inferences, to which they lead.*' The collection of facts contained in this paper is very copious, and shews to advantage both the learning and the industry of the writer, while the physiological deductions are ingenious and judicious. These examples of acephalous or otherwise imperfect fœtuses lead to some interesting speculations respecting the order in which the parts are originally formed, and their dependence on each other while in the uterus; on the effect of the brain in modifying the shape of the skull; on the dependence of the different functions on the brain; and on the connection between the sanguiferous and nervous systems; all which topics pass the author's review.

Dr. Bateman gives the *History of a tubercular Eruption, of a syphilitic Appearance, but curable without Mercury.* Of this affliction, which seems to have been hitherto undescribed, Dr. B. has seen several cases: but the cause of it, and particularly its connection with a syphilitic origin, remain obscure. It is cured by tonics and purgatives, and it is thus described:

> 'The eruption, which had extended over the whole body in all the cases, at the time when I first visited the patients, consisted of a number of small, circular spots, from one to two lines in diameter, slightly elevated above the surface of the cuticle, but flattened on their own superficies. They were at first of a dusky rose-colour, smooth, and shining; but subsequently they became somewhat darker, or of a more purple or chocolate hue; and the surfaces of some of them at length exhibited a slight tendency to desquamation in the centre. This tendency to scale was generally most remarkable in the tubercles affecting the legs, which were somewhat larger than those of the rest of the body: a minute scaly crust was also occasionally formed upon the centre of some of those which were seated on the forehead, when the eruption was at its acme, or in its decline.'

Mr. Forster relates a *Case of Bubonocele,* in which the operation had been performed, as it was supposed with effect, but in five days the symptoms of strangulation returned, which rendered a second operation necessary. The complaint had existed for ten years, and the patient had worn an ill-formed truss, which appears to have produced adhesions between the inner abdominal ring and the intestine: which adhesions had not been perceived in the first operation. — Mr. Money, in a short paper, describes the *Effects of large Doses of Opium in Diabetes.* As much as 24 grains were taken in 24 hours, with some benefit to the complaint, and without any of the unpleasant consequences which frequently attend the use of this medicine. — Mr. Brodie, in continuation of the valuable dissertation on the *Diseases of the Joints,* which appeared in the last volume, now proposes to describe the complaints affecting the synovial membrane, and the appropriate treatment. He first considers the inflammation of this membrane, and afterward those cases in which the membrane seems to have experienced a morbid change of structure. The inflammation of this part may proceed from various causes; it may arise as a symptom of rheumatism, from the too large exhibition of mercury, from a local injury, or the local application of cold; and it appears, according to circumstances, sometimes as an acute and at other times as a chronic disease. Nothing very specific occurs in its treatment: topical bleeding is the most effectual remedy for the acute, and blisters or stimulating liniments for the chronic variety; issues and setons are said not to be productive of much benefit; nor does Mr. Brodie speak favourably of friction.

We have next four cases, by the late Mr. Ware, *of the Muscæ Volitantes of Nervous Persons*, an imperfection of the vision in which dark moats are seen moving before the eyes. The proximate cause of these appearances it is not easy to ascertain, but the author deems it probable 'that they depend on a steady pressure on one or more minute points of the retina.' With respect to the prognosis in such cases, and especially on the point how far they may be regarded as forerunners of any worse disease of the eyes, we have the following remark:

> 'From the observations that have been now made, it follows, that whenever the appearance of muscæ volitantes is unaccompanied with the sensation of a mist, which more or less obscures the appearance of objects, the conclusion may be safely drawn, that it is not a symptom of a cataract; and whenever their appearance is not accompanied with a fixed state of the pupil, it may as safely be inferred that it is not a symptom of the gutta serena.
>
> 'In making this remark, however, I do not mean that the appearance of these moats is not occasionally observed by persons who have an incipient gutta serena, as well as by those who have an incipient cataract; but in such cases other symptoms denoting these different disorders are always present with them.'

It appears that *Erysipelas*, when it attacks sailors, is frequently fatal, generally occurs on the lower extremities, and is liable to terminate in gangrene. Dr. Hutchinson informs us that he prevented or mitigated these unpleasant effects, by making free incisions on the inflamed surface, so as completely to divide the integuments, and thus both to act as a topical bleeding and also to procure free vent for any effusion of fluids that may afterward take place. — *Case of obstructed Aorta*, by Dr. Graham. A boy had a pectoral complaint, accompanied by palpitation, and some other anomalous symptoms; and, after death, the aorta was found to be completely impervious, at a short distance below the part at which it gives off the left subclavian. The author's opinion respecting the manner in which the circulation was continued under these peculiar circumstances is thus stated:

> 'The arteria innominata, the left subclavian, the superior intercostals, and the mammary arteries, were much enlarged. The epigastric was reported of its natural size. These facts, and the aorta acquiring at least very nearly its natural size immediately below the stricture, shew that the blood did not pass to the inferior extremities, in any material quantity, as might perhaps have been expected, by the inosculations of the mammary and epigastric arteries, but chiefly by the communications of the superior intercostals and the mammary arteries, with the three large branches entering the aorta below the stricture: also from the mammaries and thoracics through others of the intercostal and diaphragmatic arteries.'

In the next paper, our attention is called to *the Epidemic Fever, which occurred at Gibraltar, in* 1804, 1810, *and* 1813, *taken from official Documents, Military and Medical, and from the Communications of Dr. Gilpin.* These remarks are especially directed to ascertain the point, which has been so much controverted, whether the disease was infectious, or whether it was produced by any particular effluvia or miasmata to which the inhabitants were exposed at that period. On this question, Dr. Gilpin says;

> 'That the disease in question is contagious, (or more properly speaking, perhaps, *infectious*, as actual contact does not appear to be necessary to its transmission,) I entertain not the least doubt, though an opposite opinion has been held by some highly respectable medical characters. I have witnessed both abroad and in this garrison too many melancholy instances of the disease being communicable from one person to another. At Martinique, in the year 1793, we suffered dreadfully from the ravages of a fever, in every respect similar to that which lately appeared here, and in numberless instances its infectious nature was ascertained by its attacking those who were in attendance on the sick; and it is a melancholy truth, that very few of the medical officers survived the pestilential duty in which we were employed. But as in this statement I am only called upon to give my *own* opinion, I do not think it necessary to combat further the opinions of others. I shall merely add, that innumerable circumstances have brought a degree of conviction to my mind, that is not to be shaken by any arguments or reasonings on the side of *non* contagion, that I have hitherto read or heard of.'

Dr. Somerville gives an account of his observations on *the Diuretic Properties of the Pyrola Umbellata,* a plant that grows abundantly in the Pine-forests of Canada; and Mr. Wardrop then relates a case in which the *fractured ends of a Femur*, that could not be brought to unite by the usual means, were made to assume the healthy action by having a seton introduced between them: a practice for which, the author informs us, he was indebted to Dr. Physic of New-York. The paper is of considerable value, and promises to establish the utility of the operation in all similar circumstances. — Mr. Travers, in his *farther Observations on the Cataract*, pursues the investigation on which he entered in the last volume of these Transactions. He sums up the contents of the two papers in a series of propositions too long to be quoted in this place; in which, proceeding on the classification of cataracts into the two species, capsular and lenticular, he inquires into the mode of operation which is best adapted for each, and the objects that are to be particularly kept in view. — *A Case of Aneurism of the Glutæal Artery, cured by tying the internal Iliac*, by Mr. Stevens; — A *Report of the Diseases in the Royal Military Asylum at Chelsea*, by Mr. M'Gregor; — and a letter from Dr. Henry, in which the point is discussed whether measles have become more frequent since the introduction of cow-pox, a question that is answered in the negative; — conclude the volume, on which we shall in general terms remark that it fully supports the credit of its predecessors.

Vol. VI. and Part I. of Vol. VII. of these Transactions have appeared, and we shall speedily report their contents.

Art. XI. *Illustrations of English Philology.* By Charles Richardson, Esq. 4to. pp. 292. 1l. 5s. Boards. Gale and Fenner.

These Illustrations of English Philology consist of five distinct parts, or dissertations. The first criticizes severely the plan of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary; the second analyzes and applauds the grammatical principles advanced in the "Diversions of Purley;" the third comments in detail on various imperfect lexicographical articles of Johnson; the fourth attacks vehemently the supplemental matter inserted in Mr. Todd's recent edition of the Dictionary; and the fifth replies to Mr. Dugald Stewart's censure of Horne Tooke's philological speculations. The second and fifth of these dissertations should be read first, and ought so to have been arranged; because they explain and defend the principles on which the sentence of condemnation is founded, that the author, in the first, third, and fourth of these disquisitions, unsparingly pronounces against Dr. Johnson and his editor.

A concise estimate of Johnson's Dictionary was given in our xxivth volume, p. 559.; and we could not now characterize it again with greater equity or precision. Mr. Richardson, in his introductory letter, amply supports the degree of censure which is included in that paragraph. Indeed, the deficiency of Johnson in etymological knowlege is here proved by numerous instances; and the loose, vague, and various character of his definitions, which to the same formative syllables attribute now an active and now a passive sense, is repeatedly exemplified. Many vices of modern stylists are in a great degree the result of Johnson's want of system, and of his reliance on induction for the purport of words, instead of ascertaining by research their necessary and inherent meaning. One instance will suffice to reveal the nature of this mischief. The Latin adjective *fertilis* is derived from *ferre* to bear, and means consequently *able to bear*, *to produce;* and this is always its only meaning. Accordingly, the Latin writers apply it to all forms of production. Livy describes Gaul as fertile of men and corn: Lucan describes an unwholsome atmosphere as fertile of deaths: Pliny describes a mountainous district as fertile in metals; and Valerius Maximus describes a seat of literature as fertile in doctrine. Of course we can say, a desert fertile of salt, or a stream fertile in fish: but, in consequence of Dr. Johnson having defined the word by the vague synonyms *fruitful*, *abundant*, *plenteous*, an opinion has arisen that these words are all interchangeable: so that in the Farmer's Magazine we read of a *fertile* litter of pigs, which is nonsense; and even Mr. D. Stewart, who ventures to discuss this word, instances " a *fertile* source" as a mixed metaphor. If Dr. Johnson, instead of supplying a catalogue of synonyms which can only explain a word by approximation, or of collecting exemplary passages which can only assist a reader to infer the meaning of a word by induction, had attached himself to the grammatical definition of his terms, he would have rendered the most important of all services to the language of his country, by inuring authors to write with precision.

Mr. Richardson justly observes that the verb *to ask* is not neuter; that *cause* is ill defined by Johnson; and that *pride, arrogance, haughtiness,* are confounded, not discriminated, by him. Many other instructive animadversions occur; yet, on the whole, this introductory letter wants neatness of compilation and definition of aim, and is the least complete or valuable of the five.

The second letter, or dissertation, is intitled an Analysis of the grammatical Principles of the "Diversions of Purley." To each volume of that work, several paragraphs are allotted: but the matter of the first is inconveniently condensed; and some questionable doctrines in the second are republished with too much confidence. Thus, at p. 27., we are told by Mr. Richardson; 'Another source of general terms is the third person singular of the indicative; of which person *th* was the regular termination.' We apprehend that Horne Tooke was mistaken in assigning a verbal origin to our abstract substantives in *th;* and that they are mostly formed from adjectives. Thus from long, *length;* strong, *strength;* dear, *dearth;* dry, *drowth;* heal, *health;* high, *height;* broad, *breadth;* well, *wealth;* slow, *sloth;* wide, *width;* warm, *warmth;* swart, *swarth;* merry, *mirth;* foul, *filth;* moon, *month*, &c. &c. Now this terminative *th* is as likely to be a coalescence of the article with the adjective, as to be the person of a verb. The long, the broad, the wide, of a piece of stuff, is a natural expression for its length, breadth, or width: but, in order to support Mr. Tooke's derivation, we must farther suppose an intermediate verb now obsolete, *to long, to broad, to wide*, and define length *that which longeth*, which would be absurd. Though Horne Tooke was not learned in the northern tongues, his sagacity is still admirable when he is pursuing a wrong scent. Another argument against his opinion is that those substantives in *th*, which appear to have a verbal origin, assert a passive rather than an active sense. Thus *math*, from *to mow*, means *the thing mown*, not *that which moweth: broth*, from *to brew*, means *the thing brewed*, not *that which breweth: ruth*, from *to rue*, means *the regret suffered*, not *that which rueth: stealth*, from *to steal*, means *the thing stolen*, or the deed done, not *that which stealeth;* and, in all these cases, the infinitive mood of a verb in coalescence with the article forms a natural equivalent expression: the mow of hay; the brew of beer; the rue of extinguished anger; the steal of the young spendthrift. We infer that the formative *th* is a transposed article.

Mr. Richardson plays with grammatical terms somewhat strangely. Let us transcribe an account of certain new parts of speech:

> 'The potential passive adjective. — This was the first of the four which our ancestors adopted. It is obtained by the termination *able* or *ible*, and the contraction *ile*, a termination having one common signification, and derived from the Latins, who received it from the Gothic *Abal, robur;* whence, also, our English word *able.* Those words in *ble*, which are used without a passive signification, are taken from the French, who took them corruptly from the

Italian, and in the following manner:—Our Anglo-Saxon *full*, which with the Germans is *vol*, became the Italian *vole*, which the French, by a slovenly pronunciation, not distinguishing between *bile* and *vole*, transformed into *ble*, as from cape*vole*, cap*able*, &c. In this manner our own word, *full*, passing through the German, Italian, and French, comes back to us again under the corrupt shape of *ble;* confounding those terminations, whose distinct application is so important to the purposes of speech. Thus we have *senseful*, *sensitive*, *sensible*, which, properly interpreted, mean, Full of sense;—Which can feel;—Which may be felt; and yet we hear "of a sensible man, who is very sensible of the cold, or of any sensible change in the weather."

'The potential active adjective.—For this we have two terminations: *ive*, borrowed from the Latin, as a provocat*ive*, a palliat*ive;* any thing that *can or may* provoke, that *can or may* palliate; and *ic*, from the Greek, as crit*ic*, any one who can or may discern. *Ive* and *ic* are from *vis* and Ισχυς. Of these abbreviations also there are corrupt applications.

'The official mood passive adjective, is a name adopted from *distress*.—It is intended to signify that mood or manner of using the verb, by which we might couple the notion of duty with it; by which we might at the same time, and in conjunction with it, express τα δεοντα, the things which *ought*, and the things which *ought not* to be done. The words, which we have adopted in this mood, are merely Legend, Reverend, Dividend, Prebend, Memorandum, and several of these are abused in their application.—This kind of word we awkwardly and ambiguously supply by a circumlocution; the expression *is to*, or *is to be*, being all that we have of our own to supply the place of this adjective, as well as of the potential passive adjective.'

The third letter, or dissertation, is the most elaborate and extensive, and professes to contain a critical examination of the Dictionary of Dr. Johnson, for which purpose a much thicker quarto would be requisite than this entire volume. Still, it dissects critically many leading articles; and, when it applies to words which constitute one of a class, and succeeds in reforming Dr. Johnson's definition of that entire class of words, it confers essential service. An example of this sort occurs at the word *Able*, which it may therefore be expedient to select:

'We have already seen in the Analysis that, in Tooke's opinion, our English word *Able* is derived from the Gothic; that the Latins derived their terminations in *Bilis* from the same source; that from them we have immediately our own terminations *able* and *ible*, and the contraction in *ile;* and that to adjectives with this termination he applies the name of the potential *passive* adjective. We have also seen in what manner (by the corruption of *full*) we have obtained those adjectives in *ble*, which we use *actively;* the origin and force of the terminations *ive* and *ic*, and the appropriation of the name,—the potential *active* adjective,—to those adjectives, which we have adoped with those latter terminations, have also sufficiently, though concisely, been explained. *Full* is free from any difficulty. Tooke is not original, nor does he pretend that he is, in deriving *Able* from *Ābal*, Robur. Junius (Johnson's great authority) anticipates him, and declares that the English do not owe their word *Able* to the Romans: but Johnson in opposition to this, and alarmed, as it should seem, at the northern scenery, which is thus opened to him, turns his view to Italy for *Habilis*, and to France for *Habile*. He takes not the slightest notice of the etymology of Junius.

'Other stores of information were accessible to him, which he equally disregarded. Scaliger distinctly points out to him the force of the two terminations *ilis* and *ivus*: "Duas habuere apud Latinos, totidem apud Græcos terminationes: In *ivus*, activam, in *ilis* passivam. Sic Græci αισθητικον, quod sensu præditum est; αισθητον, quod sensu percipi potest." De Causis, lib. iv. c. 98. Yet Johnson preserves no consistent mode of explanation according to the termination; he did not know, or he did not heed, that one ought to be preserved.

'Defens*ible* and Defens*ive* he distinguishes tolerably in his explanation; but offers *defendens* as the etymology of *defensive*. With Vis*ible* and Vis*ive* he makes sad work; Vis*ive* (which occurs repeatedly in Berkeley in its proper signification, viz. Which can see,) he explains "Formed in the act of seeing;" and as if his "Defensive" had, in his own estimation, a poor chance of adoption, he tries another for Visive, *i. e.* Visus. Both Conduc*ible* and Conduc*ive* he interprets actively. And all this appears to pass without creating the least suspicion of any thing wrong or inconsistent; and yet the words which have been adjectived by the addition of both terminations, as in the instances already given, are numerous, and might have roused the attention of the most sluggish. But Johnson knew that deliberation and inquiry would occupy time, and of this he had none to spare.

'The difficulties which our old translators felt in rendering the Latin verbals in *bilis*, are worthy of remark. They could not translate them without a periphrasis; and when they began to take a few of the words as they found them, they thought it necessary to explain them. From a MS. New Testament in Tooke's possession, and which he supposes to have been written about the time of Edward III., he produces the following examples of such words, with the explanation which accompanies them:

'UNENARRABLE, or that may not be told; occurs twice.

'AMYABLE, or able to be lovyd.

'INSOLIBLE, or that may not be undon.

'SWADIBLE, or esi for to trete, and to be tretid.

'Upon comparing the translation of Wiclif with the passages in which the above words and their attendant explanations are to be found, it appears that Wiclif has not ventured to adopt the words, but uses merely the circumlocutions. And yet if Tooke's conjecture as to the age of the translator of his MS. be right, Wiclif must have been his cotemporary. Facts of this nature are important in the history of a particular language; but where shall we find them in the work of Johnson?'

About two thousand words are examined in the same way, in the course of the two hundred pages set apart for this investigation. We sometimes differ in opinion from Mr. Richardson: but the greater number of his animadversions go to the indication of real and gross blemishes; and we consider his critical details as a great and lasting service rendered to English philology. It is easy to inveigh against errors in the mass: but the removal of them can be effected only by the patient industry of thus affixing to them corrective labels, one by one. Mr. R.'s notes, however, occasionally require annotation in their turn. If he vigilantly mistrusts Johnson, he relies with servile deference on Tooke; repeating some of the wildest and most ignorant dreams of the latter, such as that *bold* is derived from *builded.* Bold is in Gothic *balth*, in Anglo-Saxon *bald* and *beald*, in Low-Saxon *bolde*, in Frankish *palde*, in Hollandish *boud*, in Swedish *bald*, in Icelandic *baldr:* it is etymologically connected with the Swedish *baella*, I can, and is nearly synonymous with able, or ready. — The proposition *by* is here derived from the verb *to be;* it more probably comes from *bye*, the lap. The words *cage*, and *kay* or *quay*, are here referred to one root: but it is notorious that we have imported the word *cage* from France, and that it is probably of Latin origin, from *cavea:* while it is equally notorious that we have imported the word *kay* from Holland, and that it is of Gothic origin, from *kaayen* to haul, and signifies a place to which ships are hauled. However ingeniously the common idea of confinement might be applied to connect these two words, still conjecture cannot supersede historical fact; and it ought never to be adopted in etymology, unless to explain those words of which the existence precedes record. Mr. Tooke, who had more intellect than northern lore, frequently advances a rash though always an ingenious conjecture: but Mr. Richardson pursues the same untracked course with still less caution, and often connects (like Mr. Whiter in his Etymologicon) words as obviously distinct in pedigree as a negro and a white.

We will make another extract in which sound criticism is displayed:

'EAR, *n. s.* (Eape, Saxon; *Oer*, Dutch.) 1. The whole organ of audition or hearing.

'There are eight more explanations, the last of which is, "The spike of corn; that part which contains the seeds." We must proceed to

'Eared, *adj.* (from *ear.*) 1. Having ears or organs of hearing 2. Having ears or ripe corn.

'The first explanation is unaccompanied by any example: the last is in a still worse predicament. It has this for an example:

> " ——— The covert of the thrice-*ear'd* field
> Saw stately Ceres to her passion yield."

The passage is from the 5th book of the Odyssey, (v. 125. in the original, and 159. in the translation). And I am afraid that it will appear, upon consulting the original, that Pope very well knew the meaning of Homer, and has expressed it in English undefiled; and that Johnson has been guilty of a most egregious blunder. The Greek expression is Νειῷ ενι τριπολῳ. The word τριπολον occurs also in the 18th Iliad, v. 542., and there it is translated by Pope, "thrice-laboured:" and, in fact, the scene described is that of labourers in the very act of ploughing, or *earing*, the field. The Scholiast, upon the word in both passages, interprets τριποδος to mean τρις or τριτον εστραμμενη.

'Now, to complete the matter, Johnson has the verb "*To ear*, to plow, to till;" which he derives from the Latin *Aro;* and yet he gives this obvious past participle of this verb *To ear*, i. e. to plow, as an adjective from the noun,—the name of the organ of the sense of hearing, and explains it accordingly.

'He was also entirely unsuspicious that "*Earth*" was any part of this verb; but upon this head we must hear Tooke.

'"*Earth*, that which one *ereth* or *eareth*, i. e. plougheth. It is the third person of the indicate of Eꞃian, arare, *to ere*, to *eare*, to plough.

'"Instead of *Earth*, Douglas and some other ancient authors use *Erd;* i. e. *Ered*, *Er'd*, that which is ploughed; the past participle of the same verb.

'"Where we now say *Earth*, the Germans use *Erd;* which Vossius derives from the Hebrew: 'Ab Hebræo est etiam Germanicum *Erd*.' From the Hebrew also he is willing to derive *Tellus*. But both *Erd* and *Tellus* are of Northern origin, and mean—

'*Erd*, that which is *Er-ed* - - - { Er-ian, Ar-are.
'*Tell-us*, that which is *Till-ed* - - { Til-ian, Tol-ere.

And it is a most erroneous practice of the Latin etymologists to fly to the Hebrew for whatever they cannot find in the Greek; for the Romans were not a mixed colony of Greeks and Jews, but of Greeks and Goths; as the whole of the Latin language most plainly evinces."

'One of Johnson's explanations of *Earthly* may be selected as a specimen of his own peculiar strain. It means, "4. *Any thing in the world;* a female hyperbole."

A dissertation of four pages attempts to settle the difference between fancy and imagination: but, in Taylor's lately published work on Synonyms, an opinion is given distinct from

that

that of Mr. D. Stewart, and from that of the present author. Another somewhat unconvincing speculation is the attempt to derive *mirth* and *murder* from the same root; as, in the Spurzheim system of craniology, the organ of pugnacity may produce a repartee or a knock-down blow. *Myrran*, to scatter, is not the root of either. *Merry* means *marrowy*. *Murder*, though used in Saxon, is a law-term borrowed of the canon law, or of the Normans; and, being derived from the French *meurtre*, which is seemingly a frequentative from the root *mors*, it occurs in Low Latin in the form *murdrum*, and means death by repeated blows. A great confusion of words variously derived prevails under the article *Rogue*, which is not from *wrigan*, but is itself a primitive of indecent import: a rogue therefore does not mean a vagabond, but a libertine. Under the article *Yard*, it is erroneously asserted that *garter* is a collateral word corrupted from *girder*; whereas it is historically certain that *garter* comes from the French *jarretière*, a ham-belt. These and other similar blunders must preclude indiscriminate confidence in the present author's quick decisions; and we must remember that as complete an overthrow of all correctness in expression may be accomplished by the attribution of false derivations, as by inattention to those which are true. For instance, if this last theory of the word *garter* were correct, a *wrist-garter* would be a legitimate name for a bracelet; instead of which the combination is nonsense, because the word *garter* includes the idea of being attached to the ham, or *jarret*.

The fourth letter, or dissertation, is a somewhat hasty production; written, we suspect, while the previous materials were passing through the press. At least, the asperity of hastiness is often discoverable in it: but the criticisms, if few, are usually well founded, though the censure might have been advanced with more urbanity.

Mr. Todd defines *Antinomian*, "one who denies the obligation of the *moral* law." What has the word *moral* to do in the definition? Islebius Agricola is called an Antinomian by Mosheim, because he was *against* the authority of the Mosaic *law* (αντι and νομος): but, although he rejected ritual, he enforced moral observances. Mr. T. also defines *Arian*, "one who denies that Christ is the eternal God." Now Arius held that God, in his capacity of Λογος, was himself the Christ: so that this definition excludes the real Arians, and applies only to Socinians and Deists. Such negligent, not to say ignorant, explanations are properly denounced by Mr. Richardson; as they tend to scatter indiscriminate prejudice and pernicious intolerance. He thus concludes:

'My exertions, then, I hope, will have this good effect, — they will enforce a conviction upon the public, that if a good English Dictionary is ever completed, (and there is a *demand* for the completion of such a work,) it must be in a far different plan of construction, and manner of performance, from those which Johnson pursued, and which Mr. Todd is toiling to imitate and uphold; and that to complete it, is required the possession of abilities and attainments of the highest order, — of learning, deep, extensive, various, and well assorted; of a mind indeed strictly disciplined in philosophy, fearless of labour, and able to endure it. Was Dr. Johnson, is Mr. Todd (*proh pudor!*), in the enviable enjoyment of a character so exalted and so rare?'

In the fifth and last letter, or disquisition, we have the writer's comments on those four chapters in the Philosophical Essays of Professor Stewart, which attack the tendency, rather than the soundness, of Horne Tooke's philological speculations. These comments are worth reading; they are rough, but they strike home, as well as hard. Mr. D. Stewart is a writer whose reputation perhaps transcends his merit, and whose want of precision will not always abide the test of scrupulous grammatical criticism. Secretly conscious that indistinctness of idea has occasioned his habit of qualified assertion, he is anxious to hang a crape over the light, which might display the uncertainties of contour in his conceptions. A vague phraseology, trammelled with expletives, and softened off by subjunctives, expands across the emptiness of his pages. His style diffuses a sort of milk and water, which is perspicuous from diluteness, not from transparency. Truly skilful in the use of ornament, he makes his elegance subservient to his prudence, and, like the painter who employs drapery to hide his drawing, veils in metaphor the ambiguities of his diction. His opinions being eclectic, they do not cohere with all the consistency of native thinking: his inferences are selected by his taste, and then patronized by his dialectic. A priest of philosophy rather than himself a philosopher, he assembles reasons for his doctrine, instead of deducing his doctrine from reasoning; and accordingly he more frequently persuades than convinces, and is rather the apologist of opinion than a discoverer of truth. We are, however, forgetting Mr. Richardson's character of the Professor, to give utterance to our own: — we now extract: —

'Mr. Stewart disavows all homage to the etymological, that is, the real meaning of words, and points to ever-fleeting usage, ("which so oft doth construe things clean from the purpose of the things themselves,") as the only authority to which he will consent to own his fealty, or to pay his obedience. He, it should seem, or I must confess myself wholly at a loss to comprehend his criticisms upon the writings of Mr. Tooke, following the example of Dr. Johnson, imagines the "meaning" of a word, and its "philosophical import," to be the same; and he further maintains, that a knowledge of this meaning or import is not to be acquired from etymology, but "by that habit of accurate and vigilant induction, which, by the study of the most approved models of writing and of thinking, elicits gradually the precise notions, which our best authors have annexed to their phraseology." Mr. Tooke, on the other hand, cautiously and constantly exhibits the difference between the real sense, which etymology *alone* enables us to discover, and that variety of application which necessity exacts and usage must tolerate and adopt; admitting, by his own practice, that for competent information of the extent to which usage may have carried her sufferance, we certainly must have recourse to a careful study of the most deservedly approved compositions. But Mr. Stewart, not observing the careful preservation of this distinction, imputes to Mr. Tooke a corollary, which (with the premises from which he derives it) exists only in the errors of his own understanding.'—

'It is one among the many alarms which agitate the spirits of Mr. Stewart, that by the strict disciplinarians of Mr. Tooke's school of philology, the graces of his elocution should be too severely restrained, and the flowers of his rhetoric be stripped by a barbarous and unsparing hand. For my own part I cannot sympathize with him in his fears, persuaded, as I am, that from the writings of Mr. Tooke himself, (for of the disciples I know nothing,) he might derive a lesson upon *style*, which, if properly applied, could have no other effects than such as would materially contribute to the improvement of his own. One quality (only one I acknowledge) there is of good composition, in which, in a great degree, he must be pronounced to be deficient,—I mean intelligibility. In reading the works of Mr. Stewart, and of Dr. Reid likewise, I am constantly reduced to the necessity of acquitting them of the absurd consequences, which must result from the plain and obvious interpretations of the language in which their opinions are expressed, and of endeavouring "to elicit their precise notions by vigilant induction."'

In this work, Mr. Richardson has certainly displayed both industry and judgment: but that industry must be exerted in acquiring a farther knowlege of the northern tongues, and that judgment inured to a severer marshalling of evidence, before they can usefully be applied to the revisal of our national dictionaries. When Junius determined to undertake his Etymologicon, he embarked for Holland, stationed himself in Friesland, and proceeded to study on the spot that dialect which he considered as parental to the English language. Such an excursion into the neighbourhood of Bremen may be recommended to the present author, if he wishes to acquire that conversancy with collateral dialects, and that freedom from local habits and prejudices, which ought to characterize a lawgiver in British philology.

ART. XII. *The Lay of the Laureate.*—*Carmen Nuptiale,* by Robert Southey, Esq., Poet Laureate, Member of the Royal Spanish Academy; and of the Royal Spanish Academy of History. 12mo. pp. 77. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

"VANITY of vanities, all is vanity!" Never did the impressive tautology of the Preacher more appropriately belong to any human occasion, than to the eternal eulogy of himself and of his muse that pervades the poems of the Laureate. Beginning with his Joan of Arc, his "Six Weeks' Epic," and proceeding through the Introduction to Madoc *, down to the present *Carmen Nuptiale,* Mr. Southey is the very "*Versifier Ego*" of the day, and would no doubt be ready to exclaim, if he could speak in Latin the genuine language of the Laureate's heart,

"*O fortunatum natum* ME *Vate Regentem!*"

That he is above the common race of laureates (although that office has been dignified by more than one eminent possessor,) we have often testified, and shall always be ready to announce: but no admiration, were it ever so much greater than we profess, of his talents, could make us blind to the overweening opinion which he himself entertains of them. Other versifiers have written amply (much too amply) of themselves and of their own affairs: but, in every instance that we at present recollect, their egotism has been intermixed with sentiments of self-abasement, and has often assumed the character of an injudicious publicity of sorrow, an unrequired confession of offences, rather than an unblushing and unabated arrogance of incessant self-panegyric. Let our readers forget, if they please, the former sins of Mr. Southey, of this kind; and let them confine their observations to that specimen of them which the Proëm alone to the present little volume exhibits. Can it be believed that all the honest glow of modesty is so extinct in any poet's bosom, as to suffer him to speak of himself in the following extraordinary manner?—The commencement is natural enough:

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* —— "Come listen to my song!
Come, for ye know me! *I am He* who sung
The Maid of Arc, and *I am He* who fram'd," &c. &c.

'Fair regions Fancy opened to my view:—
"There lies thy path," she said, "do thou that path pursue:"'

but mark what follows:

'"For what hast thou to do with wealth or power,
Thou whom rich nature at thy happy birth
Blest in her bounty with the largest dower
That heaven indulges to a child of earth,—
Then when the sacred Sisters for their own
Baptized thee in the springs of Helicon!

'"They promised for thee that thou shouldst eschew
All low desires, all empty vanities;
That thou shouldst still to Truth and Freedom true,
The applause or censure of the herd despise;
And in obedience to their impulse given,
Walk in the light of Nature and of Heaven."'

If Mr. Southey's godmothers the Muses "did promise" for him that he should '*eschew* all empty *vanities*,' their godson has lived in the constant violation of their promise, ever since he arrived at that questionable period, his years of *discretion*. Moreover, it is not only of his *poetical* powers that the Laureate is so much enamoured: he admires, with at least an equal degree of rapture, his own labours in history. "*Audet in historiâ!*" quite as confidently.

'Sometimes I soar where Fancy guides the rein,
Beyond this visible diurnal sphere;
But most with long and self-approving pain,
Patient pursue the historian's task severe;
Thus in the ages which are past I live,
And those which are to come my sure reward will give.

'Yea in this now, while Malice frets her hour,
Is foretaste given me of that meed divine;
Here undisturbed in this sequestered bower,
The friendship of the good and wise is mine;
And that green wreath which decks the Bard when dead,
That laureate garland crowns my living head.

'That wreath which in Eliza's golden days
My master dear, divinest Spenser wore,
That which rewarded Drayton's learned lays,
Which thoughtful Ben and gentle Daniel bore,—
Grin Envy through thy ragged mask of scorn!
In honour it was given, with honour it is worn!

'Proudly I raised the high thanksgiving strain
Of victory in a rightful cause achieved;
For which I long had looked and not in vain,
As one who with firm faith and undeceived,
In history and the heart of man could find
Sure presage of deliverance for mankind.

'Proudly I offered to the royal ear
My song of joy when war's dread work was done,
And glorious Britain round her satiate spear
The olive garland twined by Victory won;
Exulting as became me in such cause,
I offered to the Prince his People's just applause.

'And when, as if the tales of old Romance
Were but to typify his splendid reign,
Princes and Potentates from conquered France,
And chiefs in arms approved, a peerless train,
Assembled at his Court,— my duteous lays
Preferred a welcome of enduring praise.

'And when that last and most momentous hour,
Beheld the re-risen cause of evil yield
To the Red Cross and England's arm of power,
I sung of Waterloo's unequalled field,
Paying the tribute of a soul embued
With deepest joy devout and aweful gratitude.

'Such strains beseemed me well.'——

"Hold, enough!"

Much quaint coquetry occurs, in the course of this little trifle of a publication, between Mr. Southey and his '*dear master*,' as he calls the inimitable author of the Fairy Queen.

"Thy *Master*, Southey! Yes, indeed he is,
And well had whipp'd his pupil, had he known
That such unmeasur'd arrogance as this
Would ever dare to call itself his own!"

Seriously, we cannot suffer the father of English allegory, and the most eloquent and vivid of descriptive poets that any nation has produced after Ovid, to be degraded by the supposition of his having taught any successor so inferior a style, and so prosaic a phraseology, compared with his own, as that of the present laureate. It is scarcely possible for any two authors to be more unlike. All is light, fairy-like, sylph-like, in the vehicle of Spenser's thoughts. His thoughts themselves are full, indeed, of sweet philosophy, of hidden wisdom curiously adorned: but, in the management of his allegories, he has contrived at the same time to make the surface smiling and pleasing, while truth is sheltered in the depths below. His story, in a word, may be read for amusement, while the covert instruction escapes the less attentive student: but, when a more careful eye examines it, the pleasure and the profit are great indeed. The Laureate follows him, it is true: but (as Lady M. W. Montague said, with the greatest injustice, of Johnson and Addison,) he follows him "at the same pace that a pack-horse does a racer!" The clumsy allegory of Honour, and Faith, and Valour, and of their heavenly progenitors, Aretè, Phronis, (a very unhappy name for a male divinity,) Eusebeia, and Dicè, which is to be found in the *Carmen Nuptiale*, or Epithalamium on the marriage of the Princess Charlotte, will sufficiently explain and vindicate our comparison.

The scene which follows at the royal nuptials is grotesque to the last degree. Some mythological or tautological (as they may better be called) personages make their appearance in succession; and among them are two lions, the one fat and the other lean, respectively couched before the bride and bridegroom! The lean lion is rather aukwardly described as the guardian of Saxony; and the spectators are desired to infer that his leanness arises from the oppressions of the late Ruler of France! This is a little too much, when we recollect the date of the defalcations from the kingdom of which this impoverished beast is ungraciously supposed to be the fit representative; and an embargo should be laid on such allusions; since, contrary to all reasonable expectations, they can issue even from a laureate's lips. Our old friend, the fat lion, we need not say, is the constant attendant of Britannia, undiminished in size and sleekness even by the present severe pressure of the times! This is fortunate; and we here congratulate the Laureate on having resumed the courtly strain so indispensably attached to his office. He does all honour to it, indeed, in the following stanzas; and, under the not very ingenious cover of a manly freedom, he is guilty of as open a tender of gross adulation to the subjects of his song, as the records of any birth, marriage, or death in Christendom, can commemorate. We must begin, however, with our quotations, a little earlier than the passages which we particularly mean, in order to render the whole more intelligible and impressive:

'Amid that Hall* of Victory side by side,
  Conspicuous o'er the splendid company,
There sate a royal bridegroom and his bride:
  In her fair cheek, and in her bright blue eye,
Her flaxen locks and her benignant mien,
The marks of Brunswick's royal line were seen.'

We shall not quarrel with this natural piece of gallantry on such an occasion, but proceed to the address of Britannia to her guardians and governors:

'Daughter of Brunswick's fated line, she said,
  While joyful realms their gratulations pay,
And ask for blessings on thy bridal bed,
  We too descend upon this happy day,—

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* We know not how it is, but the Laureate has contrived to suggest to our recollections a fête at Vauxhall, rather than a solemn and serious festival.

Receive with willing ear what we impart,
And treasure up our counsels in thy heart!

'Long may it be ere thou art called to bear
The weight of empire in a day of woe!
Be it thy favoured lot meantime to share
The joys which from domestic virtue flow,
And may the lessons which are now imprest
In years of leisure, sink into thy breast.

'Look to thy Sire, and in his steady way,
As in his Father's he, learn thou to tread;
That thus, when comes the inevitable day,
No other change be felt than of the head
Which wears the crown; thy name will then be blest
Like theirs, when thou too shalt be called to rest.'

We leave our readers to their reflections, and shall introduce the next ideal personage, whose airy chariot "stops the way:"

'They called him *Praxis* in the Olympian tongue,
But here on earth *Experience* was his name.'—

'Of Kronos and the nymph Mnemosynê
He sprung, ——'

This gentleman brings in the *Statutes at Large*, reduced, we suppose, to that judicious abridgment which has lately been meditated: for, like "the Iliad in a Nutshell," they are bound in one little portable volume, and laid between the 'princely couple on the throne.' *Exit* Praxis, bowing; and Enter the Angel of the English church, with the works of the Fathers, we presume, in his pocket! Here we are pleased to alter our tone, and to recognize in the Laureate that better spirit of poetry which we have so often seized an opportunity to applaud:

'The next who stood before that royal pair
Came gliding like a vision o'er the ground;
A glory went before him through the air,
Ambrosial odours floated all around,
His purple wings a heavenly lustre shed,
A silvery halo hovered round his head.

'The angel of the English church was this,
With whose divinest presence there appeared
A glorious train, inheritors of bliss,
Saints in the memory of the good revered,
Who having rendered back their vital breath
To Him from whom it came, were perfected by Death.

'Edward the spotless Tudor, there I knew,
In whose pure breast, with pious nurture fed,
All generous hopes and gentle virtues grew;
A heavenly diadem adorned his head, —

Most blessed Prince, whose saintly name might move
The understanding heart to tears of reverent love.

'Less radiant than King Edward, Cranmer came,
But purged from persecution's sable spot;
For he had given his body to the flame,
And now in that right hand which flinching not
He proffered to the fire's atoning doom,
Bore he the unfading palm of martyrdom.

'There too came Latimer, in worth allied,
Who to the stake when brought by Romish rage,
As if with prison-weeds he cast aside
The infirmity of flesh and weight of age,
Bow-bent till then with weakness, in his shroud
Stood up erect and firm before the admiring crowd.

'With these, partakers in beatitude,
Bearing like them the palm, their emblem meet,
The noble army came, who had subdued
All frailty, putting death beneath their feet:
Their robes were like the mountain-snow, and bright
As tho' they had been dipt in the fountain-springs of light.

'For these were they who valiantly endured
The fierce extremity of mortal pain,
By no weak tenderness to life allured,
The victims of that hateful Henry's reign,
And of the bloody Queen, beneath whose sway
Rome lit her fires, and fiends kept holyday.

'O pardon me, thrice holy spirits dear,
That hastily I now must pass ye by!
No want of duteous reverence is there here;
None better knows nor deeplier feels than I
What to your sufferings and your faith we owe,
Ye valiant champions for the truth below!

'Hereafter haply with maturer care,
(So Heaven permit) that reverence shall be shown.'

All this is in a very different style from the rest: but, as soon as the author returns from his little excursion into past ages, and revisits the scene of the nuptials, his tameness and aukwardness recommence: as if the aweful presence of a court chilled his spirit; and as if there was something in that spirit, nursed among the mountains, and *breathing the early air of liberty*, which did not from its secret self accord, in perfect sincerity, with the novel scenes and the novel company into which the *new æra* * has introduced it.

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* See the Review of Southey's *Minor Poems* in the M. R. for October 1815. Vol. lxxviii. p. 181.

Observe the flat and insipid change of tone and manner! After having promised a future poem on some subject connected with the Reformation, the Laureate thus limps on:

> 'Now of my vision *I must needs declare,*
> And how the Angel stood before the throne,
> And fixing on that Princess as he spake
> His eye benign, the aweful silence brake.
>
> 'Thus said the Angel, Thou to whom one day
> There shall in earthly guardianship be given
> The English church, preserve it from decay!
> Ere now for that most sacred charge hath Heaven
> In perilous times provided female means,
> Blessing it beneath the rule of pious Queens.'

This last couplet is the consummation of doggrel; and we shall be contented with assuring our readers that we have found nothing *quite* so bad in what follows, until we come to *quite* the end of the volume: that, on the contrary, the advice given to the Princess Charlotte to encourage the diffusion of learning and religion over the kingdom, when she is placed at the head of it, is throughout patriotic, and often poetical; and that the poem ends with the abrupt introduction of *Sudden Death!!!*—a very extraordinary personage to be brought by a poet-laureate to close the celebration of a royal wedding. The last line of the Epithalamium is indeed perfectly unique:

> 'My name is Death—the last best friend am I!'

> "*I'm the Bold Thunder—the brisk Lightning I!*"

is nothing to this striking novelty of the Mr. Bayes of the new æra!

We deem it wholly unnecessary for the Laureate to have written an epilogue to apologize for the *gravity* of his *Carmen Nuptiale;* since to read or to hear it read without sensations destructive of all *gravity* we conceive to be impossible. For ourselves, we have not enjoyed such a laugh before, even at the merry season just passed; and, as we cannot withhold the like enjoyment from our readers, we shall leave them to the undisturbed perusal of the concluding unrivalled specimen of infantine childishness, combined and seasoned with the happiest full-grown vanity!

'L'ENVOY.

> 'Go, little Book, from this my solitude,—
> I cast thee on the waters:—go thy ways!
> And if, as I believe, thy vein be good,
> The world will find thee after many days.
> Be it with thee according to thy worth:—
> Go, little Book! in faith I send thee forth.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1817.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Art. 13. *Thanksgiving Ode*, January 18. 1816. With other short Pieces, chiefly referring to recent public Events. By William Wordsworth. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1816.

A sacredness belongs to poetry, as we have always thought, which ill adapts it to the bustle and business of contemporary transactions. Whether the feeling of dislike which we own that we entertain for "Odes written on the Occasion of Recent Public Events," and for all such every-day effusions, arises from their number and from their general mediocrity; or whether some suspicion of adulation always attaches to the poetry which celebrates living merit; or, lastly, and perhaps most efficiently, whether the perusal of the high-flown descriptions in prose which the newspapers of the new æra contain, on every opportunity of rejoicing for a victory, pre-occupies our minds, and indisposes us to the repetition of the same images and ideas in the pages of their poetical brethren; whether, we say, either or all of these causes may be said to influence our taste, we cannot with cordial pleasure enjoy the very best of these gazettes in verse. Mr. Wordsworth, indeed, has written a little Thanksgiving of his own; and so peculiarly his own, that we do not see to what human being, place, circumstance, or time, saving Mr. W. W. in good spirits on a fine Sunday morning, among the Lakes, it has more than a general reference. It is composed in all that *composing* placidity of style which is so characteristic of this rural and romantic personage; and it is very pious, and so far so good: but it is also very quaint, and very prosaic. The thoughts are sometimes poetical: but the expressions, according to the author's happy theory of familiarity in the language of verse, are often of the most conversational cast; and the whole effect of the poem is very much that of a moderate dose of magnesia, inspirited with a small quantity of lemon-juice. We shall offer our readers a tea-spoon full or two of this harmless mixture:

> 'Mid the deep quiet of this morning hour,
> All nature seems to hear me while I speak,—
> By feelings urged, that do not vainly seek
> Apt language, ready as the tuneful notes
> That stream in blithe succession from the throats
> Of birds in leafy bower,
> Warbling a farewell to a vernal shower.
> —There is a radiant but a short-lived flame,
> That burns for Poets in the dawning East;—
> And oft my soul hath kindled at the same,
> When the captivity of sleep had ceased
> But he who fixed immovably the frame

Of the round world, and built, by laws as strong,
A solid refuge for distress,
The towers of righteousness;
He knows that from a holier altar came
The quickening spark of this day's sacrifice;
Knows that the source is nobler whence doth rise
The current of this matin song;
That deeper far it lies
Than aught dependant on the fickle skies.'

We select another little example of the tranquil and the resigned. The fondness of Mr. W. W. for 'green leaves' and 'roaring torrents' is curiously exemplified in this passage.

'Land of our fathers! *precious unto me*
Since the first joys of thinking infancy;
When of thy gallant chivalry I read,
And hugged the volume on my sleepless bed!
O England! — dearer far than life is dear,
If I forget thy prowess, never more
Be thy ungrateful son allowed to hear
Thy green leaves rustle, or thy torrents roar!
But how can *He* be faithless to the past,
Whose soul, intolerant of base decline,
Saw in thy virtue a celestial sign,
That bade him hope, and to his hope cleave fast!'

Surely this is very tame and uninteresting; very unlike what we were accustomed to read as poetry in our youth. We must say, too, that the conclusion is in the same insipid manner; — a manner which, if we had not been prepared for it by various degrees of *prosaic verse*, slowly mounting from the worst parts of Thomson up through Cowper and Southey into Wordsworth, would have been instantly rejected by the public as a gross imposition, in pretending to assume the remotest shape of poetry.

It is astonishing what we can be brought to bear by due gradations. The Indian Jugglers did not *swallow* their swords at once, and with facility: — but alas! we, the descendants of those who were enraptured by Dryden and Pope, (to look no farther back into the long succession of English genius,) we have been brought so low by the repeated exercise of unworthy patience and degrading toleration, that *we* can *swallow* any thing; and even the incredible hardihood of dividing prose into fantastic sections, and calling it verse, is now committed not only with impunity but with honour! — We are weary with expostulation, and we are sure that our readers would be equally tired with ampler quotation. We shall therefore merely add, for their information, that the pamphlet now before us contains a few dull and aukward sonnets and other minor poems at the end of the Thanksgiving Ode; and transcribing for their amusement four happy little lines from that ode, which rival any of the flowers of methodism that we have lately encountered in the shape of *hymns* or *whims*, or whatever they may be intitled:

'Preserve, O Lord! within our hearts
The memory of thy favour,
That else insensibly departs,
And loses its sweet savour!'

Art. 14. *The Patriot*; an original Poem in Seven Cantos. By an Englishman; to which are added Britannia's Invocation on the Princess Charlotte's Marriage; and Britannia mourning the Loss of a Hero. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1816.

Among the numerous poetical effusions which are hourly issuing from the British press, few that were more justly intitled than the present to the appellation of *doggrel* have ever fallen under the lash of criticism. To justify this opinion, we need extract but one short specimen of the versification of this anonymous bard; and we shall then take our leave, advising him, in the most friendly and temperate manner, to direct his attention for the future to some worthier object than the publication of such nugatory rhymes:

'Nor are my heroes proof against sharp steel,
Like fierce Achilles, who in Styx was hurl'd,
But vulnerable quite from head to heel,
Are subject to the sorrows of this world:
And many valiant chiefs, with flags unfurl'd,
Have in their country's battles met grim death;
Yet such as wore the armour of morality
(Although subdu'd and humbled by mortality)
Were crown'd in Immortality's green wreath.'

Art 15. *Melancholy Hours*: a Collection of Miscellaneous Poems. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Richardson. 1816.

In order to obviate the too depressing effect which his 'Melancholy Hours' might have on his readers *, the author of this little miscellany informs us in his preface that 'many of the woes here described exist only in the imagination of the writer.' We cannot conceive any means more effectual for destroying every degree of sympathy in our perusal of this seemingly mournful volume, than the preceding confession. By this information, when the poet tells us that 'his heart is broken,' as he *frequently* does in the course of the work, we know that this is not the case; and by this information, when he would wish us to cry, he at the same time kindly furnishes us with the opportunity of laughing: but it is not always that we can enjoy so pleasant a sensation in reading these melancholy effusions. Wearisomeness and satiety attend us through the larger portion of the pages; till something like indignation (and yet not so strong a feeling) rouses us from approaching slumber, at such a title as 'Song—Imitation of Moore.'

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* See our Review of "Dermid," an Irish epic, (Number for December 1815,) in which the author good-humouredly tells us that he wrote lively notes to counteract the gloom of his text.

'Strike

I.

'Strike the harp and sing the praise,
Of the maid, who's gone for ever;
Tell of brighter, happier days,
Will they return? ah! never, never!

II.

'Mournful now that strain resounds,
Thro' the bower her fair hands planted;
Hush'd are now those silv'ry sounds
Which ev'ry feeling heart enchanted!

III.

'Roses round this bow'r once grew,
Now, alas! they all have faded;
They have lost their blooming hue,
Like the lovely form they shaded!

IV.

'Tho' the balmy breath of spring
Will return with wonted fleetness;
Yet, alas! it ne'er can bring
To that rose its former sweetness!

V.

'Few the years on earth she stay'd,
Short the glimpse which we were giv'n;
She just appeared to bless this shade,
Then vanish'd to her native heav'n!'

When our readers recollect the touching little song of "Here's the Bow'r," and when they see these feeble and faded lines called an 'Imitation of Moore,' will they not feel some little leaven of contempt mingle with their bursts of laughter at such a *Frog and Ox* representation?

Art. 16. *The Hermit of Hawkstone;* a descriptive Poem. By Charles Ash, Author of Adbaston; The Heath-Girl, &c. &c. Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1816.

We find nothing inelegant in this little volume, and nothing vigorous. Here are a hermit and his son, who travel together over the wonders of Hawkstone, and discover their relationship after their return to their little cell. The whole is intended as a sort of poetical tribute of honour to the noble house of Hill; and we have too much respect even for the *Waxen Hermit* *, at their singular and striking family-seat, to criticize with severity this well-meant effusion. We would only admonish the author, in his next publication, (if it be necessary for him again to publish,) not to make his hermit fall down too often, and to take "*Cave, ne*

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* The figure in a recess of the grotto at Hawkstone.

titubes," for his motto. Perhaps, too, he would do well to omit such couplets as

> 'Some holy *volumes* strew'd a table o'er,
> A shelf sustain'd some mouldy *volumes* more.'

Art. 17. *The Relics of a Saint;* a right merry Tale. By Ferdinand Farquhar, Esq. 12mo. pp. 135. 5s. Boards. Tegg. 1816.

Mr. Ferdinand Farquhar, in spite of the title which he has affixed to his doggrel, cannot be called either 'right' or 'merry;' and if any 'nominal saint' ever left such 'relics' as those contained in the little packet of trash before us, he was a 'real sinner.'

The frontispiece to the volume, intending to be ludicrous, is merely vulgar; vainly, although strenuously, endeavouring to make up in indecorum what it wants in humour; — and well does the volume itself answer to the frontispiece! It can only cease to be insipid where the vicious taste and tone of the author meet with some congenial vice in the reader. Were it merely stupid, the degree of its dullness is so extreme that it would demand signal censure even on this account: but, when gross allusion is interwoven with stale common-place, and, although the wasp is dead, the venom of its protruded sting yet survives, we can only regret (as we have sometimes been forced to do before) that the weapons of deserved punishment are not as efficient in the critical as they are in the criminal courts of justice.

Art. 18. *The Mountain-Boy;* a Metrical Romance. By John Bird, Esq. 8vo. pp. 229. 9s. Boards. Underwoods. 1816.

The name of Metrical Romance operates, we confess, as a torpedo on our spirits. After having preserved our fortitude unimpaired for many seasons, under the painful assaults of these numberless microscopic productions, we have at length imbibed such a dread of their appearance that our ink, as it were, runs back from our pens at the sight of any *one*, and indeed

> "Of *all* the hideous family of "Scott,"
> More hideous than their Sire!"

The *Mountain-Boy* is entirely undistinguished from his brethren of the mountains by any feature of originality. He is descriptive of the sun and moon; — he is namby pamby; — he turns *out to be a girl in boy's clothes!*

Art. 19. *Freedom,* with other Poems. By George Thomas. 12mo. pp. 116. 6s. Boards. Chapple. 1816.

We must take the *liberty* to tell the author of *Freedom* that he is no poet: but we should be so sorry to be waging unconscious war with any inhabitant, or candidate for habitation, in those places which Pope excludes from the legitimate province of satire, that we shall satisfy ourselves with a few extracts from the work, and allow the reader to draw his own conclusions. The opening address will serve the purpose as well as any other passage:

> 'Hail! power divine, whose birth th' archangel sung,
> The earth with peals of bursting gladness rung,

Sister of life primeval, of fair light
Assisting minstrel, when the dun crowned night
First moved his car from off the icy pole,
T' unfurl his sable streamers on the goal
Of trembling darkness. Fiends gnashed at thy bright rise,
To see thy natal star possess the skies,
Irradiate fulgence gleam, diffusing far
A clattering shout of joy, 'mid realms that bar
The circling fires on corruscant throne
Of Deity supreme.
Hail! devote being of inspiring charms,
Whose healing breath the lingering captive warms
With thrilling life, whose arms th' infolded doors
Of tyrant-prison break, snap the dead scores
Of knotted links that weigh the savage down,
Writhed in despair within his dungeon's frown.'

'*Guileless anticks of nature*,' '*gingling tongues jarring*,' '*Inbend procumbent*,' '*war's beblooded visage*,' '*trumpet's blaring bellow*,'

'*His eyes immerged within their sockets' brim*
In briny streams of flooding sorrow swim,'

follow in bright succession; and the author having advanced to '*yelling thunder*,' '*breathing fire*,' '*belching ire*,' '*mounts* PRECIPITE,' '*rage infuriate*,' '*and boiling madness*,' we deem it full time to bid him adieu, and, whispering to his attendants,

"*Caput hoc ventosa cucurbita quærit!*"

we make our escape with the utmost rapidity.

Art. 20. *The Faro Table*; or the Guardians. A Comedy. Now performing at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. By the late John Tobin, Esq. Author of the Honey-Moon, Curfew, &c. 8vo. pp. 56. 3s. Murray. 1816.

Most men are gratified by tracing in another the resemblance of any of their old friends and acquaintances; and the fortunate representative of his predecessors feels in general the advantage of receiving, in his own person, the same kindness which would have been extended to the individuals whose features he possesses: especially, too, if his manners, behaviour, and understanding, add to the recommendation. It is to this feeling that we must in a great measure attribute the success of some of the late Mr. Tobin's dramatic exertions, and particularly of that which we are now noticing. In the Honey-Moon, the most deservedly popular of his plays, a similarity of feature to one of the offspring of Shakspeare, the immortal father of the whole race, was discernible; and in the comedy before us it is not difficult to recognize the resemblance of the principal lineaments of the face, and of every limb and motion of the body, to various favourite sons of the drama who are the prototypes of the plan.

The author's good sense in the *compilation* (we cannot call it the *composition*) of the plot, and the humorous liveliness and unentangled celerity with which it is gradually unfolded and brought to its close, have produced a pleasing play; and by its convenient length, (would that other authors imitated him in this respect!)

spect!) and the recollections which it excites in every scene of such dramatists as Colman senior and Sheridan, it has become, we understand, a favourite on the stage.

MILITARY AND NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 21. *A Treatise on Topography, for both Civil and Military Purposes*, compiled and partly written by C. S. de Malortie, of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, Knight of the Royal and Military Order of St. Louis, and of the Decoration of the Lys, Author of various Military Publications. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Egerton.

The French government, during the time of Napoleon, when its military fame was at its highest elevation, published at its own charge a very extensive work, intitled "*Mémorial Topographique et Militaire*;" from different parts of which, and from one or two other sources, M. de Malortie has compiled the two volumes now before us. The first treats of Geodesic operations, the description and use of the repeating circle, the description and use of Borda's reflecting circle, of the spirit-level, &c. with a variety of other subjects, and formulæ and computations relating to trigonometrical surveys; besides numerous formulæ and tables respecting the determination of altitudes by the barometer, translated from Biot's treatise on Physical Astronomy, and reduced to English measures.

Volume II. relates first to what the author calls triangles of the second order, that is, the minor triangles, or those by which a map is completed after the principal points have been determined; the method of carrying on military surveys, &c.; and, lastly, a translation from the French of M. Alland, on Military Reconnoitering.

In offering a few observations as to the execution of this work, it will not be in our power to say much that will be very flattering to the translator; who appears to have ventured considerably out of his depth in this undertaking, particularly in the first volume, which contains many serious and some comic errors. Of the latter, we have an instance in page 161., where an inverted figure of 3 is in two places made to supply the place of the Greek ε; in another place, (page 34.) the author states that the air-bubble of a spirit-level, by virtue of its gravity, always tends to occupy the lowest part of the tube; in another, we are told 'that r' is sensibly equal to r;' and in another, that the case is the same whether in a storm or in '*a* rainy weather:' with various inaccuracies of a similar kind, which may be attributed to the circumstance of the author not being a master of the English idiom, and which, as they lead to no important mistake, the candid reader may be disposed to pass with a smile. There are, however, some which are less excusable, arising from a want of knowlege of the subject which M. de Malortie has undertaken to translate, and which will therefore admit of no apology; such are those that relate to the analytical formulæ, by the misplacing of parenthesis, as

$$r \sin. (360)-(O+Y)$$

instead of

$$r \sin. (360^\circ-(O+Y))$$

which occurs twice in page 72.; besides a similar fault, which is not however of so much consequence. Again, in page 82., we have $\frac{1}{2} A + (H - h)$ for $\frac{1}{2} (A + H - h)$, and in the same page $\frac{1}{2} A - (H - h)$, for $\frac{1}{2} (A - (H - h))$; in page 96., $1 \frac{1}{2} e^2 \sin.^2 L$ is used instead of $1 - \frac{1}{2} e^2 \sin.^2 L$; with a variety of other such errors in different pages of the work.

We are aware that many of these inaccuracies *may be* ascribed to the original, but it certainly was the duty of the translator to have corrected them. Indeed, we think that, on the whole, M. de Malortie ought not to have attempted the translation of this first volume: the subject is one of the most interesting parts of practical mathematics; few persons will be induced to read a book respecting it that is not sanctioned by the name of some author of eminence in the scientific world; and, even if this prejudice should not operate, ten minutes' perusal would convince any reader, who is a competent judge, whether the qualifications of the author were or were not of the requisite order. The case is different in some other subjects; a young officer, of little experience, may fancy a work on reconnoitering or field-fortification to be *very clever*, and an indifferent author may in such instances enjoy a partial and temporary reputation: but a man who can undertake to read a treatise on Geodesia must already possess sufficient knowlege to appreciate the merits of the writer.

Art. 22. *A Postscript to the "Claims of the British Navy;"* being a Continuation of the Arguments therein contained: with other Matter; and an Appendix of Observations on the "Answer to the Claims." By the same Old Post Captain. Also additional Observations on the *Answer*, by another Officer of the Royal Navy. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Steel and Goddard. 1816.

We spoke of the *Claims of the Navy*, and of the *Answer*, in our Number for February last, p. 221., and we then anticipated that reply from the Post Captain which has since appeared. We had little doubt, also, from the general character of his style of writing, that he would conduct his defence with the candour and temper which he has here exhibited, certainly in a very laudable and not very common degree. He begins by admitting the validity of the answerer's corrections of one or two points in his former statement: such as the affidavits on receiving half-pay, the arguments for the army-compensation on the loss of baggage, &c. and then proceeds to some remarks on '*Passing over Captains*,' '*the relative Period of Service*,' and other topics. To the former cause of complaint we have before adverted; and the author now strengthens the case by additional facts and considerations. Indeed, we can conceive but two circumstances which can justify the passing over an old Captain when his turn for flag-promotion arrives, if he be not otherwise employed: viz. *previous misconduct*, or *previous refusal to serve*. Even disability to serve as an Admiral, on account of wounds or ill health, should not prevent him from obtaining his dearly-earned honours. — After a war of 25 years, during which the services and the hardships of our naval officers can be lightly appreciated only by the ignorant and the heartless, we see a portion of these men placed on superannuated lists, and deprived of that honour to which they have through life aspired, on the score of economy; yet the public saving arising out of this measure is here shewn to be only *nine thousand eight hundred and twenty-seven pounds.* — The Post Captain also remarks clearly and strongly on the periods which are required in the military and the naval services, to enable an officer to attain the gradations of rank; and the difference certainly appears to bear very hard on the sons of the ocean: the nature of whose service, it may be observed, would (generally speaking) rather qualify a man to rise into command at an earlier period of life than that of the military officer, instead of his being kept so much longer in subordinate stations. — The comparative half-pay in the two services is likewise strikingly pointed out.

In the Appendix, the writer examines the "Answer" *seriatim:* supporting his own previous remarks, and dissecting those of his opponent, in a way which renders his pamphlet worthy of attention from all those who perused the answer to the former: but it is impossible for us to go through the various particulars.

The 'Additional Observations,' by a Brother-officer, relate to the comparative *Promotions* in the two services, to the *Widows' Pensions, Pensions for Wounds, Distribution of Prize-money, Loss of Baggage, Droits of Admiralty,* and *Partiality to Army-victories in the Distribution of National Rewards.* This writer, who signs *Curtius,* and who treats the answerer with great severity, is an able co-operator with the Post Captain; and we recommend his observations to notice wherever they can interest the feelings, and still more wherever they can influence the conduct of those who might remedy the complaints to which they relate.

Art. 23. *Observations on the Wrongs of the Navy;* chiefly on those that most solicit Redress. By a Friend to Justice and a Foe to Deception. 8vo. 3s. Steel and Goddard.

As the writer of this pamphlet has complimented us on the sentiments which we expressed in the article above quoted, (Rev. Feb. p. 221.) it would be very ungracious in us to treat his production with less politeness, even if we could be justified by his demerits. We cannot, however, urge that plea; because we agree with him in his representation of the case discussed, and approve the talents and the feelings with which he has argued it. His main object is the grand evil of passing over Captains, when their turn comes for promotion to flags; and this injustice, for which we cannot imagine any palliation, is forcibly depicted by him. In addition to the rule for this purpose which has existed for some years, he says that an aggravating clause has recently been added to it: viz. "that all Captains who have not had ships since the *truce* of Amiens, are to be arrested in their rank."

'There was a period,' he observes, 'in the dark ages, when the most monstrous encroachments upon common sense and humanity did not astonish the world; when a Copernicus might have been destroyed by fire, because he could explain the arrangement of the planets (as an officer is destroyed in his rights now, because he did not use his hands, while *tied up*); when any unhappy being was tortured to death, because he was supposed to deal with the devil, and to *do* things which were impossible to be done: but were these acts of bigoted barbarity worse, as to *principle*, than to punish a man, of unblemished character, for not doing that which was impossible to be done; — for not taking the command of a ship, when the Admiralty would not give it to him? This is called an enlightened age; but surely this is not an enlightened act. The imputation of such a one would cause an Algerine to blush, an Arab to bury himself in the dust.'

We cannot refrain from viewing the regulations of this nature as the infusion of poison into the vitals of that service on which the existence of Great Britain as a free state depends; and their frightful impolicy is to be equalled only by their cruel injustice. As we before remarked, we do not like the selection of individual cases to exemplify this matter, because a variety of circumstances may concur in single cases on which disputants may dwell, and which may not consist with the general reasoning that should decide a proposition: but the present author adduces some very strong instances; and with equal strength he draws a general picture of the Captain who unsuccessfully *implores* to be employed, and is then refused promotion because he has not been on service within a given period! Though we have not room to copy this picture, we should be wrong to omit the following reflection:

'We must not forget that our country is a country of *islands*; and, had all the battles on the Peninsula, with the battle of Waterloo, been lost, while *true to ourselves*, we might have become less rich; but we should still have remained in safety. We should not have "bent our necks to Cæsar," unless we became, by corruption, *willing* slaves. But, *had the naval battles been lost*, these islands *must* have been conquered; and those who can *now* perceive no merit in the navy, and will not allow that even *justice* is its *right*, would long ago have groaned under the tyrant's yoke, and perhaps, as common soldiers, have carried muskets in his armies.'

Most ardently, as individuals and as patriots, do we hope that this subject will attract due attention, and be arranged on just principles.

POLITICS.

Art. 24. *Argument on the Case of Marshal Ney*, with Reference to the Convention of Paris, and the Treaty of the 20th Nov. 1815. In which the Reasonings of Messrs. Dupin and Berryer (his Counsel) are considered. With an Appendix containing their Arguments as published by themselves, the Dispatch of the Duke of Wellington inclosing the Convention of Paris, and the Convention itself. By a Barrister. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Longman and Co.

It is the object of this Argument to prove that no just foundation existed for the charges brought against the French government and the Duke of Wellington for permitting the condemnation of Ney, notwithstanding a particular article in the capitulation of Paris. The article in question (the twelfth) had no political retrospect,

trospect, but related, as explained by the Duke of Wellington, merely to the military men engaged in the defence of the French capital. It is generally conceded that Marshal Ney had fairly forfeited his life; and that the vindication set forth, less we believe by himself than his counsel, was wholly inadequate to his exculpation. We have therefore merely to notice that the tract before us discovers considerable ability.

Art. 25. *Idea of a New Law for the Civilized World,* recommended to the Consideration of France, Great Britain, and the American States. By the Author of " A Letter from Athens." 8vo. pp. 72. 3s. Law and Co.

The public has lately had occasion to see various arguments printed and circulated in favour of a permanently pacific system; and the writer of this pamphlet throws in his mite to the general contribution, by recommending that no civilized nation (at least none of the three mentioned in the title-page) should resort to the pernicious and melancholy alternative of war, without a previous appeal to the citizens at large. He proposes that, on the apprehended necessity of war, books should be opened in the principal towns of each county, or department, for the reception of signatures on the part of individuals whose age and property intitle them to a voice in the public concerns. These signatures would of course be either in favour of or against the proposed appeal to arms; and, in the course of a few weeks, the books containing them should be transmitted to the capital by way of forming a basis for the determination of the executive power. — Such is the substance of the pamphlet. The arguments by which the adoption of these measures is inforced are given in a very desultory, unequal, and some times fantastic style. The reader is tempted to consider the writer as possessed not only of information but of judicious views, on perusing such remarks as (p. 37.) his observations on the state of Germany: but he cannot fail to be shaken in these advantageous prepossessions, when, on turning over the page, he finds this apparent advocate of peace subscribing to the vulgar notion that 'occasional wars are necessary for the salubrity of every body-politic.' Nor will our favourable impressions be increased by looking to the close of the pamphlet; where we are presented with the plan of a national gallery to contain the busts of our statesmen, commanders, literati, &c., as if the present season of distress were a time for contemplating the erection of a building on so very expensive a scale.

Art. 26. *Letters on the Importance of encouraging the Growth of Corn and Wool* in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. By George Webb Hall. 8vo. pp. 82. 3s. Sherwood and Co.

Much as we have felt for the embarrassments of the agriculturists, we can by no means give our sanction to such means of relief as are proposed by Mr. Webb Hall. In one passage (p. 12.) we meet with a demand to prohibit the import of foreign wheat until our own shall reach an extravagant rate; and to give, in certain cases, a drawback of not less than 20s. per quarter on the export of our own. Another recommendation, equally liberal and judicious, is to 'raise corn at home at whatever expence, and to consent to receive none from foreigners, until every acre of our own has been carried to the utmost length of production.' This doctrine is worthy of the warmest advocates of our Orders in Council; or of those sagacious reasoners who insist that we 'ought to reserve to ourselves the monopoly of our own commerce.' How our manufacturers and merchants are to live under such a system, Mr. Hall scarcely condescends to explain. He sticks, however, to his text in all its points; advising an exclusion not only of foreign corn but of foreign wool: as if the import of a raw material on the cheapest possible terms were not a fundamental rule in all systems of national economy. Such extremes prevent the reader from paying adequate attention to the points (as p. 17.) in which the author is certainly right in principle, though vehement and extravagant in his mode of arguing. With regard to style, these letters are unnecessarily diffuse, and bear all the marks of a writer accustomed to commit his impressions to paper as fast as they occur.

Art. 27. *Letters on the Corn-Trade*, containing Considerations on the Combinations of Farmers and the Monopoly of Corn. Also Remarks on the Trade as connected with the Manufactures, and general Interests of the Community. To which are added an Inquiry into the Origin of the Corn-Laws, and some curious Specimens of ancient British Legislation; with a Postscript, occasioned by the late extraordinary Fluctuations in the Corn-Market. By Joseph Storrs Fry. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Arch. 1816.

The purport of Mr. F.'s little tract will be found materially different from that which his readers may at first imagine; since, instead of pressing the ordinary charge of combination on our agricultural brethren, he exerts himself to prove the impossibility of its existence. The number of farmers in England amounts, he says, at a moderate computation to 200,000, scattered throughout every parish, from the Land's End to Berwick-on-Tweed; yet all these must be supposed to combine and co-operate, before the charge of monopoly can be brought home with effect. He combats in the same manner the current arguments against forestallers, and even ventures to raise his voice in favour of a very generally suspected class of persons, the millers; who, he maintains, are not only an indispensable but a highly respectable branch of the community. We have been so long of the same way of thinking with Mr. F. on these topics, that in turning over his pages we had only to regret the prolixity with which he enforces his arguments: even the length of his title may be taken as a specimen of his habitual fault in this respect. We may therefore waive all general observations, and confine ourselves to a notice of one of the best passages of the tract; viz. the tabular statement (p. 25.) of the cost of bread to a family at various rates of price, beginning with 9d. for the quartern loaf, and ending with 1s. 6d. This table is useful as shewing the amount of poor-rates payable to different families, according to the following considerations: — the number of their children; the wages of the father of the family; and the currency of the flour-market. The magistrates of most districts are in the habit of reckoning 14 lbs. of bread per week a proper allowance for a man, 10½ lbs. for a woman, and 7 lbs. for a child, and of making up to the poor as much as their actual earnings fall short of this computed consumption.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 28. *Additional Particulars to the Ninth and preceding Editions of the Battle of Waterloo,* with circumstantial Details. By a Near Observer. 8vo. pp. 164. 8s. Boards. Booth. 1816.

Though this little volume contains, in more places than one, letters of a very homely character, it forms on the whole an useful supplement to the larger collection which we have already noticed. (Rev. for Sept. last.) It begins with a very extensive list, containing the names of all the officers serving in our army in Flanders during the campaign of 1815; each name having added to it an initial expressive of the fate which befel the individual in those days of slaughter and confusion. Then follows a series of detached papers, letters, and observations, in the style of the former work. Among the principal of these are extracts from Dr. Halliday's relation of this campaign, published at Paris; which, though a respectable account, ought not to be allowed to escape animadversion in particular points. Dr. H. has no hesitation (p. 98.) in calling the French force at Waterloo 120,000 men, and in asserting (p. 102.) that they were in possession of La Haye Sainte only for a few minutes: but it is no discredit to our army to acknowlege that this post, situated in the weakest part of our position, was carried by the enemy about three in the afternoon, and remained in their hands until their final retreat and defeat between eight and nine in the evening. Again, though we fully agree with Dr. H. in admiring the gallantry of our Prussian allies, we can scarcely concur in all the magnificent eulogium pronounced by him on the manner of conducting their operations. They fought with the utmost bravery, indeed, but without proper combination, and seemed in fact to have no other principle than that of encountering the French wherever they might meet them, and fighting until they or their antagonists were laid low.

The concluding part of the collection supplies particulars relative to various individuals and particular corps; viz. Lord Uxbridge, the lamented Sir Wm. Ponsonby, the 28th regiment, and the two brigades of cavalry which were opportunely moved from our left to our right towards the close of the day, and contributed most essentially to the success of our general advance by scattering the remaining cavalry of the French, and laying open the squares of their grenadiers to the assault of our advancing battalions. One of the most curious papers in the book, however, and which few of its readers will expect to find there, is a letter (p. 146.) from the Duke of Marlborough, written August 17th, 1705, from the neighbourhood of Waterloo to the States-General of Holland, complaining that their deputies at head-quarters had over-ruled his plan of attacking the enemy in a position not far distant from that which has been so lately illustrated by our army. The Duke had obtained the concurrence of Auverquerque the Dutch General, (an intrepid veteran,) but had not at that time acquired a sufficient ascendency over the other representatives of the commonwealth; and it was not till after the decisive victory at Ramillies that the cautious Dutch consented to give his Grace *carte blanche* with respect to the disposal of their troops.

Art. 29. *An Account of the Public Schools, Hospitals, and other Charitable Foundations,* in the Borough of Stanford, in the Counties of Lincoln and Rutland. By Thomas Blore, of the Society of the Middle Temple, and F. S. A. 8vo. pp. 366. 13s. Boards. Crosby and Co.

In the year 1811, Mr. Zachary Clark, of Downham, published an account of the Charities belonging to the Poor of the County of Norfolk, abridged from the returns under Gilbert's Act, and from the Terriers in the office of the Lord Bishop of Norwich. (See our Review, Vol. lxxiv. p. 442.) His benevolent industry has not been lost, his most useful and well-executed work having been the means of restoring to the poor, in many parishes, large donations which had been corruptly withholden.

Whether stimulated by the meritorious example of Mr. Clark, or excited by local incident and an inherent sense of duty, Mr. Blore has here compiled a similar account of the public schools, hospitals, and other charitable foundations belonging to the borough of Stanford (or Stamford) in Lincolnshire. The introductory chapter is antiquarian, and describes the antient schools that existed before the Reformation; which were so eminent, that a secession of students from Oxford to this college was stopped by public authority. The second chapter, in which some personalities occur, treats of the modern schools known by the name of Radcliffe's and Wells's; and also, but not so completely, of the Blue-Coat school. The wills, acts of parliaments, charters, and other documents, hitherto collected relative to these endowments, are given at length. A third chapter describes the Antient Hospitals; a fourth relates to the Modern Alms-houses; the fifth enumerates the Bequests which provide Loans for poor Tradesmen; and the sixth specifies the other general charitable Donations. A schedule, or terrier, of the lands and tenements belonging to Brown's Hospital is printed at length. — To these curious, authentic, and copious documents, presently succeeds an exhortation to the inhabitants of Stanford, which we hope will not be thrown away on them, but which is too copious and of too local a nature for us to transcribe. Some farther minutiæ also occur, which, however pointedly interesting to the Stanfordians, are superfluous to the general reader.

It remains for us to bestow some tribute of approbation on the patient research, the courageous independence, and the philanthropic zeal, displayed by the author; and to exhort the leisurely residents in other antient towns to compile and publish similar records of the rights of the poor: since thus they will at once build a monument to the beneficence of our forefathers, and open a treasury to the wants of our neighbours.

CORRESPONDENCE.

A *Constant Reader* wishes that we would translate any little French quotations that are occasionally introduced, because he does not know that language. His case is, however, now so rare, that it does not appear necessary to make the parade of always giving a translation; and our correspondent will surely have no difficulty in finding some acquaintance, young or old, who can interpret for him.

We are surprized to learn that, in adverting to our forthcoming new General Index, this *Constant Reader* is not aware of the existence of the General Index to the whole of the *Old Series* of the Review, which has been so long before the world in three volumes 8vo. Our publisher, or any other bookseller, will readily supply him with a copy. — Chance, only, we fear can furnish him with Vols. 1. 3. and 4. of the Old Series.

Another *Constant Reader* (' for 26 years') will see the object of his inquiry mentioned in this Number.

X. Y. Z. will find an account of General Sarrazin's annotations on Pillet's libel on the English nation, in our Supplemental Number now published.

Crito is informed that it is our invariable practice to make a report of the contents of the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, as they appear; and that our volumes therefore furnish a complete notification of all the papers which have been printed in those scientific records.

⁂ The APPENDIX to Vol. LXXXI. of the Review will appear with this Number, and contain reports of a variety of important FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS; together with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index* to the Volume.

GENERAL INDEX.

In answer to the numerous inquiries and applications which have been made to us, respecting a new GENERAL INDEX, we have now to announce that this undertaking, comprizing the whole of the New Series of the Monthly Review, to the end of the year 1816, is in considerable forwardness, and will probably be put to the press in the approaching Spring. The plan of the former General Index will be observed: but some improvements will be adopted, and greater copiousness of reference be introduced, in the way of duplication, so as to render less likely any failure of search. It is calculated to form two large volumes in octavo.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1817.

ART. I. *The Happiness of States:* or an Inquiry concerning Population, the Modes of subsisting and employing it, and the Effects of all on Human Happiness. By S. Gray, Esq. 4to. pp. 606. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

THE first edition of Dr. Smith's celebrated Essay on the Wealth of Nations was published in the same year (1776) with the first part of Mr. Gibbon's History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire; and Mr. Hume took the freedom of telling Dr. Smith that he must be prepared to content himself with a smaller number of readers than he would have gained if he had written on an historical subject. We have lately availed ourselves of a similar liberty, in our reports of the politico-economical works of two authors, Messrs. Craig and Cunningham, on the north side of the Tweed, (M. R. Vol. lxxx. N. S. pp. 292. and 397.) and ventured even to prepare them for a considerable share of indifference on the part of the public. Yet it is amusing to see how greatly hope predominates over fear, and how confidently one writer ventures to try his fortune after another, as if a ponderous quarto were likely to obtain currency when volumes of less formidable bulk lie dormant on the booksellers' shelves. Mr. Gray advances greatly beyond Mr. Craig in what Dr. Johnson would term the exercise of ratiocination; for, not contented with giving his readers a view of the substance of his reasoning, he brings forwards paragraph after paragraph, as if never weary of varying the shades of argument and illustration. His book is not devoid of merit, and will be found to contain, occasionally, just and liberal ideas: but so thinly are they scattered that the whole might have been expressed with equal clearness and much more energy in a fourth part of the space. Redundant passages tend not only to weaken style, but to clog the comprehensive powers of the reader; keeping his attention always on the stretch after minute distinctions, when nothing should be demanded of him but a conception of the broad outline of the reasoning.

Mr. Gray divides his work into eight parts: I. Introduction. II. Of the Materials of Circulation. III. Of Money. IV. Of Population. V. Of Subsistence. VI. Influence of Population and Subsistence on each other. VII. Of the Corn-Trade. VIII. Of cultivating Waste-Land.

He sets out with a short preface on the subject of Population, and follows it up by a very idle chapter on 'Existence and its Intention,' in which he does not deem it superfluous to discuss the question 'Whether existence be desirable or not.' This is succeeded (pp. 4. 8. *et seq.*) by some remarks on 'happiness being the object of all our exertions,' a point which few of us will be inclined to contest with him. At last, (p. 21.) he enters on a specific object of inquiry, and treats of what he terms *circuland*, or the materials of circulation. This word will sound oddly to the ears of some of our readers, but we have no objection to a slight innovation when it is conducive to brevity or perspicuity. Its import will be best comprehended by an extract from a part of Mr. G.'s observations:

'It is circulation which alone gives value to things, in the point of view in which we are at present considering them. Nothing is of price, but in the form of circuland. Land itself, which is naturally the most valuable of all things, that is, which possesses most of the qualities adapted to circulation and calculated to promote it, is, except as circuland, of no more value than the same extent of sea. Suppose a man to possess ten thousand acres of heath land, which is allowed to remain in a state of nature, and feeds not even a sheep: Of what value, either to the proprietor or the public, is this extensive estate? It might as well not exist at all. But let him use it as circuland, by cultivating it; and then it becomes of real value. The process of improving it, and the use of it after it is improved, gives profitable employment to a considerable number of circulators. And while it assists in feeding them and many thousands beside, it at length enables the proprietor to become a circulator to a very large amount, suppose ten thousand a year; and his farmers with their labourers and servants to be circulators to an amount still larger. Of what value, again, is that metal, on which all men have agreed to fix so high a price, gold, if the possessor takes it out of the form of circuland, and locks it up? It is in this state of no more value, or use, than as much granite: it might as well be still in the bowels of the earth.

'The value of circuland thus arises from its capability of being exchanged. As exchanging, therefore, renders it valuable, every exchange must tend more or less to stimulate the circulandary powers. The more rapid and extensive the exchanging or circulation in a district or nation, the more valuable does circuland, speaking generally, become, and the more wealthy the district or the nation. —

'Whatever be the form of circuland, and whether it depend principally on the mind, as literary composition, or on the body, as mere labour, or equally on both, as those parts of manufacture which require science as well as manual adroitness, or whether it be independent of both body and mind, as raw materials, it is the means or vehicle of charging. Now wealth is produced by the power to charge. Whatever may be charged for is a source of it. In every shape, therefore, circuland tends to enrich a country; and every new species of it is an addition to the sources of national wealth.'

The next chapter is appropriated to a discussion of the 'effects of population on national wealth;' a point in which Mr. Gray is much more intelligible and, we may even add, more forcible than his readers would expect from his quaint and unpromising outset. He begins by correcting the very general notion that increase of population tends to make a country poorer; as if public stock were an ascertained and limited quantity, incapable of augmentation, and divided into shares becoming perpetually smaller in proportion to the increase of the number of consumers. This idea, which has so often influenced individuals, and (which is worse) even governments, he traces to the jealousy of individual traders at the introduction of a new comer in the same line; or to the home-argument that in paying our expences we find a diminution of our funds; without considering in either case that the property which goes from us is added to that of others:

'The additional population born in a country, consisting of the surplus arising from the births exceeding the deaths, has a slower influence on a nation's circuland, but the operation of this influence is sure, and powerful.—They are, indeed, just so many new customers, who add to the income of the great body of the old dealers much more than they take away, stimulate the circulandary powers, and operate towards rendering the whole national mass more extensive circulators.—

'To the butcher, the carpenter, the shopkeeper, the tailor, and the rest, they prove equivalent to a number, greater or less, of the common mass of customers.—

'The result is a general progressive increase of income among all classes, so that if in a population of three millions, there are many who are circulators each to the amount of 20 or more of the great body, the average income of each of whom, suppose, is thirty, in a population of ten millions, there may be a still greater proportion, who are circulators each to the amount of 50 or more of the great mass, and yet the average income of each of these may be increased to fifty or sixty.*

'* Sir Robert Walpole reckoned, in his time, there were not 1000 persons in England worth 1000l. a year. In 1800, there were, in Britain, 11,604 of a thousand a year and above it, including 1020 of 5000l. and upwards.'

'Bankers in a thinly-peopled country or district can scarcely exist; but in a well-peopled country, and particularly on those spots where there is an extensive and crowded population, this class goes on doing business to a greater extent every day. Jewellers, painters, picture-dealers, engravers, sculptors, printers, booksellers, music-masters, players, pastry-cooks, fruiterers, &c. in a very thin population can find little or no employment: but in proportion as the population becomes more numerous, their employment becomes more extensive, and more lucrative.—

'Thinly-peopled districts are uniformly poorer than those that are better peopled, except in some uncommon circumstances. The great mass of town-population also is richer than that of the country, or divides a larger amount of income. And, cæteris paribus, in proportion as any town is more populous than another, its population is more rich. The inhabitants of large towns are generally more fully employed.—

'In sum, an increase of population, though it be an increase of sellers, is an increase of buyers also; and from its very nature, instead of tending to diminish the capability of buying among the various circulators, operates powerfully in increasing that capability among the great mass.'

Mr. Gray proceeds to exemplify his arguments by conclusions drawn from public documents, particularly the returns under the property-tax. He there finds that the ten per cent. income-tax for 1800 produced in London and Westminster about a third of the sum levied on the kingdom at large; and that, in the metropolis, the proportion of the rich compared with the other classes is much greater than in the rest of the kingdom. The returns for Great Britain were divided into three classes, and were respectively thus:

The 1st.	class, possessing 200l. a year and upwards, were in number of families - - -	69,330
2d.	from 60l. to 200l. a year - -	252,712
3d.	under 60l. a year - -	1,456,368

In calculating the proportion of the classes in the three divisions of our island, Mr. G. finds that

England has $3\frac{2}{3}$ of the 2d class, and 131 of the 3d for each 1 of the 1st class.

Scotland has $3\frac{4}{5}$ of the 2d class, and 350 of the 3d for each 1 of the 1st class.

Wales has $4\frac{1}{4}$ of the 2d class, and 418 of the 3d for each 1 of the 1st class.

He then proposes to shew the greater proportion of affluent inhabitants in town than in the country, by the following note of the assessments for the income-tax at the time already mentioned:

'London

	No. of Assessments.		Net Amount of the latter.	Average of Ditto.
	Below 200l.	200l. and upwards.		
‘London . . .	9,061	8,260	£1,084,469	£131 : 5
Westminster	10,201	4,003	467,977	116 : 18
Middlesex .	23,046	7,054	559,687	79 : 6

Thus it appears, that the rich of London were to the intermediate class rather more than as 8 to 9, (which is by far the largest proportion they bore in any part of the island,) while, in the country part of Middlesex, the latter were to the former only as 7 to 23 or 1 to 3¼. In London also the rich averaged the extraordinary amount of 131l. each, and, of course, an income of 1310l. a year, while in the country parts of the county they averaged only 79l. or an income of 790l.’

Nothing can be more useful than statistical data derived from official returns: but Mr. G. would have done well to have given us a later date than 1800, and still better to have advanced in a few tables that which he has at present spread over a great number of pages. M. Say remarks, in the preface to his *Traité d'Économie Politique*, that to comprehend Dr. Smith it is necessary to work his reasonings over in our own minds; and we may safely add that, veterans as we are in such matters, it cost us no little labour to form a distinct idea of the object at which the author aims in pp. 35, 36, 37, 38, 42. *et seq.* of the present work. These pages consist of a series of conclusions derived from official returns given piecemeal, and without the benefit of the tabular form. Two exceptions only occur, (pp. 40, 41.) and we make a point of laying one of them before our readers:

	Persons employed in Trade and Manufactures.	To those employed in Agriculture.	To the Population of the County, as 1 to
‘Northumberland	as 12	to 11	6
Dorset	11	14	5
Kent	11	14	7
Rutland	1	2	8½
Devon	5	8	5½
Somerset	4½	5	5
Norfolk	5	8	7
Warwickshire	11	4	2¾
West Riding of Yorkshire	3	1	3½
Lancashire	5	1	2½
Westmoreland	2	3	4¾
Middlesex	12	1	5’

In one of the best chapters of the book, (p. 91.) the author illustrates the effects of the division of labour; the advantages resulting from which occupy a first-rate place among the beneficial consequences arising from an increase of population. We shall here make an extract of some length, adopting the precaution of leaving out a number of expletive passages:

'If we attend to the progress of a hamlet to a village, a town, a city, we shall easily discover how this is effected. Let us imagine the hamlet to contain ten families. These ten families, supposing them unconnected with populous districts, from the smallness of their number, and the poverty consequent on this, are individually obliged to do every thing as much as they can within themselves. They are all more or less employed in cultivating the ground for subsistence; for if one family were to give up its time entirely to making shoes, for example, they could scarcely get employment for the one-fifth part of their time. — The same thing would be true of bakers, butchers, tailors, and others engaged in the more necessary employments. All the families are, therefore, obliged to apply themselves to various sorts of works. They usually employ the greatest part of their time in the business of agriculture, which is always the most necessary. The other parts of labour, to adopt an expression used by people in some parts of our island, in the very circumstances of this supposed hamlet, they do within themselves. They all bake, brew, make and mend clothes, and so forth, each of them for itself. — As the hamlet grows a village, the elementizing influence of an increase of population gradually displays itself more and more. — The same process keeps going on, in proportion as the village becomes a little town, a large town, a city, and a great city. Not only does the town contain a greater number of persons than the village, to increase the demand in every line; but each of these persons, speaking of an average, from increasing circuland, consume more than the average quantity of each individual of the village-population per annum. —

'The population of small towns, which consist of from 1500 to 3000 inhabitants, is sufficient to elementize the more common species of labour, such as baking, making shoes and clothes, building, and the like. Thus in such towns we find bakers, shoemakers, tailors, carpenters, and masons very distinct. This arises from the constant and universal demand for the articles of these circulators among all classes, however poor. But in the articles of the superfluous or luxurious sort, the consumption of which depends chiefly on the richer classes, the elementization is not so complete. In towns of this description we find the shopkeeper, for example, a linen and woollen draper, a haberdasher, a grocer, a druggist, a patent-medicine vender, a cheesemonger, a hat-seller, a hosier, a tallow-chandler, a watch-dealer, a hardwareman, a stationer, a bookseller and a farmer, frequently in one. The doctor, as they call him, is an apothecary, man-midwife, surgeon, physician, farrier, and patent medicine seller. The lawyer is a pleader, a conveyancer, a steward, a gatherer of rents, a banker's agent, and so forth. As towns increase, and rise to 5000 and more, this mixture decreases; and the various classes of mechanics and dealers in a population of from 10,000 to 20,000 become, with some exceptions, pretty pure.—The greater the number of inhabitants in a place, the more minute is the subdivision and the more complete the elementization of employment. In the immense population of London the shoemaking class, for instance, is divided into makers of men's shoes, makers of women's shoes, makers of children's shoes, boot-cutters, boot-closers, boot-makers: women's shoe-sellers, men's shoe-sellers, boot-sellers. Some tailors make coats only, others waistcoats, a great many breeches, and some gaiters: some confine themselves to jobbing or mending; and others make chiefly dress-clothes.—

'This division, or elementization of labour, which is the natural effect of the increase of population, tends to excellence in the work. By concentrating the attention of the workman on one species of work, it renders him more skilful in it, and by keeping him constantly employed on this, it gives him not only superior manual adroitness, but greater rapidity. When a manufacturer does the same thing over again every day, he acquires a mechanical neatness and cleverness without any particular effort of the mind.'—

'The perpetual mutual stimulation arising from crowded masses of population has a perceptible influence on both the mental and corporeal movements. The mind, as well as the body, assumes an increased activity. The men in large towns think, speak, move, and act more rapidly than those of the country or in villages. In proportion as a town is more populous, the rapidity increases, till the difference between the extremes appears quite extraordinary. The time which a ploughman consumes in thinking, speaking, and moving, is laughable to a mere native of London, or even Edinburgh. The tediousness of his deliberation, the drawlingness of his tone, and the slowness of his motions seem to them a kind of burlesque.—

'This rapidity in the members of a crowded mass of population springs from the perpetual stimulation under which they act. Living in a crowd, each individual must adopt the step which the others adopt, or he will be jostled on all sides, and either trod down or pushed out. A thick population, like that of London, also supplies full employment to the various circulators, so that, with the exception of such persons as possess an invincible idleness of disposition, and expressly avoid business, they have always something to fill up their time. Such busy habits are thus produced, that a Londoner feels an insupportable languor, unless when actively engaged either in serious business or amusement. His style of living is also so expensive, that, though his wages be comparatively high, he must work hard to procure an income equal to his expenditure.'—

'The powerful effects of the mutual stimulation arising from large masses of population are visible also from the manner in which these carry on business. In the metropolis there is an appearance of wealth, cleanliness, neatness, and even splendour, generally exhibited. Every thing is calculated to accomplish its purpose fully with ease and rapidity. In very small towns all is done in a slovenly manner; and, in most cases, a disregard of comfort, with strong symptoms of the listlessness of poverty, is conspicuous. What is of a contrary description is introduced chiefly by those who have lived in the metropolis or other large towns. Of late in our island, it is true, the increasing intercourse between all parts of it has introduced every where a premature degree of equalization in this point. Our villages and small towns exhibit the business-modes of London, and an appearance of neatness and finery which their population of itself would not have introduced for centuries.'

As our readers will perceive, the author is very partial to large towns, which he justly considers as highly conducive to the improvement of workmanship in every branch of manufacture: but it would have been well to exhibit the reverse of the picture in the case of so overgrown a metropolis as London; and to have pointed out that, in a country possessed of expeditious carriage by land and water, the division of labour may take place without the necessity of collecting a mass of inhabitants in one spot. In certain districts, such as Warwickshire, experience shews that a numerous population may inhabit an extensive tract and prosecute manufacturing industry, without foregoing the benefits of a country-life, or crowding themselves into a succession of streets and lanes. Some future inquirer, accustomed to patient and attentive comparison, may succeed in pointing out to what degree a people may attain advantages of the one kind without sacrificing those of the other.

The ensuing chapter treats of an equally interesting topic; the advantages of machinery. The resentment of the populace, says Mr. G., is frequently directed against new and scarcely ever against old machines: but, were such persons capable of comprehending eventual results, they would hail the introduction of these improvements as the fore-runner of a material amendment of their own humble condition. Mr. Gray supposes the case of a machine, requiring only four people to manage it, being introduced for the purpose of doing that which formerly engaged the labour of twenty, and then proceeds thus:

' It is certainly true, that the machine mentioned does deprive sixteen persons of their usual cast of employment; and, at the first introduction, it must be the source of embarrassment, till these hands can be employed in another way. But then, on the other side, the making of these machines affords a new species of employment. And further, the period of the introduction of machines is an advanced one, when more and higher charges enter into the price of things, and consequently of wages. The wages, both of the makers and users of these, are, therefore, higher than those of the persons formerly employed. The female spinner could only make from 3d. to 6d. a day, by her wheel; but by means of the spinning machine she gets employment, for which she charges from one shilling to half-a-crown a day. Besides, even the wages of the wheel-spinner, as usual, are improved by those of the persons employed in the spinning machine. Thus all become consumers of the various articles in use to a greater amount, and consequently better customers. On a comparison of the two modes, with and without machines, we find, that in point of employment as well as circuland, the smaller number requisite to do a given piece of work combined with the greater wages, proves more than equal to the smaller wages and greater number. This has been uniformly verified in those districts, into which machines have been gradually introduced. The great body of the people are more constantly employed and receive better wages. It is partly the use of machines in the cotton and woollen manufactures, that has rendered them so much more enriching than the linen, till of late; for the spinning machine is now beginning to be successfully applied to the latter, and, in consequence, the wages of the great body employed in it are improved. —

'The result is, that machines, though they take away much employment, bring into the national stock a great deal more in return. Of this we have a clear proof afforded us by the permanent increase of the demand for hands in districts that use machinery. Indeed, except in cases of stagnation, this demand seems uniformly to increase throughout a district in proportion as machinery is more extensively employed in it.'

Without pledging ourselves for the literal accuracy of the sums stated above as wages, we have no hesitation in expressing our acquiescence in the substance of the reasoning. Various other advantages arise from the introduction of machinery; among which we shall merely specify the increase of the stock of human food consequent on lessening the consumption of provisions by other animals, particularly horses. Few countries afford more striking examples of the substitution of machinery for manual labour than the United States of America; the cause of which is to be sought partly in the high price of labour, and partly in the ease with which they can borrow and sometimes improve on the machines used in this country, or on the continent of Europe. The steam-boat, now becoming prevalent, was first adopted if not invented in North America.

The most entertaining part of the volume before us is that which relates (p. 383.) to subsistence; Mr. G.'s long details being much less fatiguing when employed on such familiar subjects as cows, oxen, poultry, and salmon, than on disquisitions into abstract principles. We extract a passage in recommendation of horse-flesh, in which our readers will observe that he urges its consumption by rather singular arguments; humanity to the animal, and the gratification, on our part, of a taste for savoury food:

'Such are the inveterate antipathies, which rise out of prejudice and custom, that all idea of persuading Europeans to eat horse-flesh will be abandoned as romantic. It is, however, true, that such a practice would add vastly to the amount of the subsistence annually produced on the same extent of territory. It would tend greatly also to diminish the miseries endured by a generous animal, who, on the present system, is wrought harder and treated more cruelly, in proportion as he grows old. He would then die, like the ox, violently, but it would be while he was yet almost a stranger to the pains of existence. He is a very cleanly feeding animal, and those who have tasted his flesh say, that the dislike to it arises from our prejudices. We have the authority of Tartar epicures for its excellence. They prefer it far to the flesh of horned cattle. Colt's flesh, which is their veal, they reckon particularly delicate. But distress alone will ever get the better of so rooted and universal a prejudice among mankind, and that only for the moment. This species of subsistence, therefore, which is of so vast an amount, will probably be for ever lost to the great body of men. As in the case of the horse being eaten, he would be killed much younger than at present, Great Britain alone, from not eating him, loses a quantity of subsistence sufficient to feed an additional population of above 500,000.'

We turned with some eagerness to a chapter (p. 78.) which professes to treat of 'population as the regulator of subsistence;' and we were not a little mortified on being obliged to read page after page without arriving at any definite conclusion. The whole, in fact, is made up of a string of *minutiæ* put together with very little attention to the connection of the reasoning. It would be tedious to illustrate this remark by examples; and we prefer to select a few passages, and place them in succession, so as to give our readers a view of Mr. Gray's sentiments without encumbering them with the prolixity of his statements.

'These dangerous speculations, which, instead of realizing the golden dreams of speculators, seldom or never fail, in a commercial country, to end in general embarrassment and distress, commonly take place on the opening of some new market, the amount of the real demand of which is not known, or on some change of political circumstances, as from war to peace. In a free country they can be checked only by the good sense of the leading houses in the trade, and the prudence of the various banks. These ought to consider that the acquisition of a few additional thousands at most is by no means an object sufficient to justify the risk of overstocking a market, and thus necessarily bringing on a general embarrassment, which may end in their own ruin and the ruin of their connexions. The sole chance of success lies in getting into the market fairly before the rest; and in a struggle of so many and such active competitors, what is this but a small, and even doubtful, prize to a hundred real blanks.'—

'With all our care, however, the very nature of commerce will always render it subject to occasional stagnation, to a failure in the demand on the one hand, or an over-supply on the other. And the evils arising from this source are many and serious. Extensive distress throughout the manufacturing districts must frequently be the consequence, with an increase of crimes both public and private. A general spirit of sedition is produced among the working manufacturers when idle and ill-fed.—These evils arise out of the natural circumstances of the manufacturing classes, and they themselves alone can provide an effectual remedy for them. In their distress, however, they form many foolish notions on the subject, fly to government, and insist on its working a miracle in their favour. They blame every thing but what is the chief cause of their distress, their own imprudence. They well know that in their lines they can never be secure from these stagnations. They should, therefore, prepare for them.—

'Government, however, though it cannot completely remedy the distress consequent on these stagnations, can always do something towards alleviating it. The great object is to increase the demand for hands, and this government can effect by attempting new works, building villages in ill-peopled districts, assisting in improving heaths, constructing docks and moles, erecting bridges and public edifices, making roads and so forth.—

'Let us suppose that there are twenty thousand hands for a time out of full employment, in consequence of a failure of some foreign market. To build and fit up a magnificent palace, for instance, which would give employment to ten thousand hands for a year or two during the stagnation, instead of being an extravagant preposterous measure, would have an excellent effect, that would be felt throughout the whole mass of circulators. The inferior hands, who could not be employed in their own lines, would be drawn off to perform some part in supplying this new demand. The remaining hands would get more constant employment; and wages, in consequence of the decrease in the number of suppliers, would rise nearer to their proper rate.'

In general, we agree with Mr. Gray in his conclusions, when he succeeds in making them intelligible: but, on two or three occasions, we have been not a little startled at the singularity of his hypotheses. A very remarkable exemplification of this kind is the notion that there is no such thing as depreciation of money; a point argued by him (p. 136.) with wonderful diffuseness, but with very little clearness or cogency of reasoning. Some passages (such as at p. 143.) seem to indicate a belief in the power of monopolizing; a belief which, if really entertained by Mr. G., must bring this grave inquirer into political truth to a level with the querulous housekeeper, who charges on the avarice of the farmer every successive advance in the price of eggs and poultry. The substance of this chapter would appear to imply a denial that the precious metals can be depreciated by the increased produce of the mines; a point which we thought had been placed beyond dispute since the days of Queen Elizabeth.

That portion of this work which is appropriated to population contains, like the rest of it, a few useful and a great many obscure and ill arranged remarks. The author assumes (p. 421.) the rate of one individual for every two acres, or 320 persons for a square mile, as a fair complement of population for European soil and climate. According to this rule, England, which has about 186 persons per square mile, has somewhat more than half the proper number; while France, having 130 persons only, is considerably below the half. The other parts of the British empire, particularly Scotland, are much farther from Mr. G.'s imaginary estimate:

	Acres.	Population.	Acres per Individual.	Persons per square Mile.
England	34,000,000	9,900,000	$3\frac{1}{10}$	186
Wales	5,000,000	630,000	8	80
Scotland	21,000,000	1,850,000	$11\frac{3}{10}$	56
Ireland	21,000,000	4,000,000	$5\frac{2}{10}$	122
Total	81,000,000	16,380,000		

Among the most important passages is that (p. 51.) in which Mr. Gray enters on the much disputed ground of productive and unproductive labour. He finds little difficulty in pointing out some errors of Dr. Smith in this department of political economy; and he wishes to substitute, as a general rule, that 'whatever admits of being charged for' comes under the description of productive labour. He insists, in particular, on the inaccuracy of the opinion that menial servants fall under the unproductive class:

> 'The menial servant is not productive of gain to his master, but, like every other species of circulator, he encreases the wealth of the community both by his income and expenditure. The circuland, in which he deals, is service, or performing what is required of him by another. This enables him to charge on the general fund through the agency of his master, and obtain an income partly in money, and partly in those articles for which money is sought after, as subsistence, clothing, lodging, &c. He does not, perhaps, buy his own food, but his master buys it for him. The same thing takes place with respect to clothes; and though he may not have a separate house, his master is obliged to procure a larger mansion, than he would have done, had he had no servants to lodge. Thus the servant in reality employs the cultivator,

tivator, the manufacturer, and the builder, &c. as well as his master. The extensive employment, which his class affords to all descriptions of circulators, tends greatly to add to the wealth of the country.—Were their species of employment completely done away, the manufacturing classes would not be more employed, but less: they would lose a considerable number of customers.'

The points in which we have no hesitation in agreeing with Mr. G. are principally the following: 1. That the class of unproductive labourers is (p. 54.) by no means so numerous as it has been alleged to be; 2. That increase of population is very far from tending to diminish national wealth; 3. That paper-money is highly advantageous (p. 193.) as long as it is exchangeable for coin; and 4. That coin ought (p. 159.) to be freely exportable, like bullion, cloth, or any other commodity. It would be easy, in a work of such extent, to specify a number of other topics in which we coincide with the author, but the enumeration just made is sufficient to shew that our animadversions on him do not proceed from the spirit of contradiction. Our strictures, in fact, relate less to the substance than to the form of his reasoning, which is very defective; much more so, indeed, than our readers can imagine from any description that we have given.—Mr. Gray promises a second work, intended to treat of 'The Employments of Men with a Reference to their Happiness;' an object which it is very kind in him to promote, but which will certainly not be enjoyed by his readers unless he makes a very material alteration in the character of his composition. His arguments should be stated concisely and in close connection; while his statistical results should be given in the form of tables, and carefully separated from the body of the reasoning. To an author, it may be very pleasant to go repeatedly over a train of ideas of his own creation, applauding at each addition his own happy fertility, and contrasting it with the barrenness of his predecessors; but with the reader, and we must confess with the reviewer, the case is materially different.—On the whole, this bulky volume may be occasionally taken up by the student of political economy, but will certainly not be attractive to readers at large. The perusal of it has reminded us of a very blunt expression addressed, not many years ago, to a candidate for a church on the other side of the Tweed; "*You may,*" said one of the hearers to the preacher, at the close of an elaborate discourse, "*receive preferment from a patron, but never flatter yourself with the expectation of a popular call.*"

Art. II. *A System of Physiological Botany*, by the Rev. P. Keith, F.L.S., Vicar of Bethersden, Kent, &c. Illustrated by Nine Engravings. 8vo. 2 Vols. About 500 Pages in each. 1l. 6s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

The introduction to this work presents us with a neat and succinct sketch of the rise and progress of botanical investigations, and concludes with the following intimation of the author's object and plan:

'Although the labours of phytologists have been directed with success to the explication of a variety of the most important phenomena of vegetation, and although we have been already favoured with a condensed and systematic view of the result of their investigations by writers of the highest celebrity, yet there seems to be still wanting some work that shall exhibit them more in the detail, and serve the purpose not merely of a brief and rapid sketch to assist the recollection of the adept, but of a clear and copious introduction to facilitate the studies of the novice, by presenting to him—first, such an elementary view of the vegetable kingdom in general as shall be directly preparatory to physiological research; and, secondly, such a view of the process of vegetation as shall render the *rationale* of the preceding phenomena preparatory to that of the following, and shall not necessarily suppose any previous knowledge of the subject.

'This will involve, in the first place, an inquiry into the structure of vegetables as being organized substances; which naturally divides itself into two distinct departments—the external structure of the plant, and the internal structure or anatomy of the plant; the former including such parts and peculiarities as are discoverable by means of outward inspection, and the latter, such parts or organs as are discoverable only by dissection. Secondly, it will involve the chemical analysis of vegetables and vegetable productions, as being the best means of ascertaining the character of the nourishment on which the plant naturally feeds. Thirdly, it will involve an account of the functions of the several organs of vegetables and phenomena of vegetable life, as being the grand and leading object of all phytological investigation, to which the foregoing inquiries are only preparatory steps. And lastly, it will involve the phenomena consequent even upon vegetable death, as comprehending the process by which the vegetable substance is ultimately reduced to the primary and unorganized principles of which it was originally composed, and rendered capable of mingling again with the soil or atmosphere, or of entering into the composition of new vegetable bodies.

'Such is a brief and rapid sketch of the origin, progress, and present state of the study of plants, together with a condensed view of the object and principal departments of the present work, which it now remains to exhibit in the detail.'

In conformity with these views, Mr. Keith divides all plants into *perfect* and *imperfect*; the former, which constitute by far the greater number of vegetables, having certain parts, or organs, which are not present in the latter. The first part of his first book treats, accordingly, of the external structure of the perfect tribes; and the second, of the external structure of the imperfect plants, or *Cryptogamiæ* of Linné. He arranges the distinct and visible parts of the external structure of the perfect sorts under the heads of *conservative Organs*, *conservative Appendages*, *reproductive Organs*, and *reproductive Appendages*; allotting a chapter to each of these titles, and embracing, in the first, the *root*, *trunk*, *branches*, *leaf*, and *frond*; in the second, *gems*, *glands*, *tendrils*, *stipules*, *ramenta*, *armature*, *pubescence*, and *anomalies*; in the third, the *flower*, *flower-stalk*, *receptacle*, *inflorescence*, and *fruit*; and, in the fourth, the *appendages of the flower*, and the *appendages of the fruit*. Such are the titles of the several sections: but the latter are again separated into *sub-sections*, and these occasionally into *articles*. — The imperfect plants are considered under the divisions of *Ferns*, *Mosses*, *Hepaticæ*, *Algæ*, and *Fungi*: but we can perceive no good reason for making two of the titles English, and the other three Latin; since, if corresponding vernacular terms to *Hepaticæ*, *Algæ*, and *Fungi*, cannot be found, a regard to uniformity should have dictated *Filices* and *Musci*, instead of *Ferns* and *Mosses*. — Each of these divisions forms the subject of a chapter, and the *conservative* and *reproductive organs* of each make the subject of a section. Under the *Algæ*, a short section is moreover destined to a view of the uses to which they are subservient.

This mode of distributing a considerable department of the definitions and descriptions, which occur in the science of Botany, is rather new than important: but it cannot be reasonably expected that the author's explanation of technical terms, and of the external parts of plants, should materially differ from those of the most eminent of his precursors. His descriptions, however, of the general appearances of the respective organs and appendages, and his notices of their principal modifications and anomalies, are not only exhibited with clearness and precision, but occasionally intermingled with acute and ingenious remarks, or with a statement of facts calculated to arrest attention and to excite inquiry. With respect to uncommon dimensions, for example, of different parts of trees, or plants, we are told that the root of the *Baobab*, or African Calabash-tree, has sometimes measured upwards of one hundred feet in length.

'Trunks are to be found of all dimensions, from that of the diminutive *Draba* that surmounts the parched wall, to that of the lofty mountain Palm that rears its head to the clouds. This immense and gigantic tree, the *Palma altissima* of Sloane, is a native of the West Indies, growing to the height of one hundred and twenty feet, sometimes to the height of one hundred and fifty feet, and even, as it is said, to that of two hundred feet; being about seven feet in circumference at the base, but gradually tapering towards the summit, and thus forming with its lofty crown of fronds, the noblest object of vegetable creation.

'In our own country, Oaks of a great age have been known to measure upwards of forty feet in circumference at the base of the trunk, with an elevation of ten or twelve feet without any division. At Colthorpe, near Wetherby in Yorkshire, there is now growing an oak that measures seventy-eight feet in circumference close to the ground, and forty-eight feet at the height of a yard. It is said to have begun to decline in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and though now much in decay is still likely to stand for many years.

'But the trunk of the Baobab or African Calabash-tree, *Adansonia digitata*, is beyond all comparison the largest tree yet known. Adanson in his voyage to Senegal saw a tree of this species that measured seventy feet in height from the root to the top of the branches, the trunk being ten or twelve feet in height by twenty-seven feet in diameter; a growth so enormous, that if the fact were not well authenticated we should be apt to regard it as altogether fabulous. The trunk of this immense tree is sometimes hollowed out and converted into a sort of house, serving for the abode of several families of negroes.'

The size of branches is usually proportioned to that of the trunk. The horizontal branches of a full-grown Calabash-tree have been known to form a diameter of upwards of a hundred feet, and consequently a circumference of upwards of three hundred feet.

Of the five sorts of *Calyx* enumerated and defined by Linné, it is here justly remarked that the *perianth* and *glume* seem to be alone intitled to the appellation; the *involucre* and *spathe* being more nearly allied to *leaves* than to a *calyx*; and the *ament*, though containing a *scale*, or *calyx*, not being itself synonymous with the latter. Mr. Keith therefore considers the calyx under the three-fold form of *perianth*, *glume*, and *scale*; and he likewise points out the difficulty of discriminating, in some particular instances, the calyx from the corolla, with the insufficiency of the rules which have been proposed by Linné, De Jussieu, Salisbury, &c. for getting rid of the difficulty. It is admitted that analogy may in some instances be an useful guide, but in others it is inapplicable. Thus, the single envelope of the white lily is at first perfectly green, and similar, by analogy, to a calyx: but it afterward changes to a beautiful white, and assumes the appearance of a corolla. Some nice critical observations also occur respecting

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the line of demarcation between the calyx and receptacle; which nature, in fact, sometimes identifies, or at least so incorporates that no symptoms of distinction are manifest.

When adverting to the various forms of the roots of Ferns, the author takes occasion to correct a common mistake, which has obtained the sanction even of the learned President of the Linnéan Society.

> ' In *Pteris aquilina*, or common Brakes, the root is sometimes described as being spindle-shaped, (Smith's Flor. Brit. p. 1136.) but this is evidently not the fact. If a frond of this brake is taken and pulled up with the hand, the lower extremity, which is black and discoloured by having been partly sunk in the earth, and to which some small fibres are occasionally attached, is apt to be mistaken for the root, and has, I presume, been often mistaken for it. But the real root from which the frond has been thus detached still remains in the soil, extending itself in a horizontal direction, at the depth of from three to four inches below the surface, sometimes simple and sometimes branched, but always furnished with lateral fibres. Its thickness is about that of the lower part of the frond, the surface being of a dark and dusky colour partly covered with a velvety sort of down, and the frond issuing from it sometimes in clusters, but generally at considerable intervals. To what length an individual root may thus extend itself I have not yet been able to ascertain; but I have often taken up portions of root measuring from eighteen to twenty inches.'

The English public are likewise indebted to Mr. Keith for a very distinct and commodious summary of Hedwig's discoveries relative to the fructification of mosses.

Book II., which briefly expounds the internal structure and anatomy of plants, consists of three chapters; the first comprehending the *decomposite Organs*, or those parts which constitute the vegetable individual, and are distinguished by external examination. Their dissection is reviewed, in the retrograde order of the *seed*, *pericarp*, *flower*, *leaf*, *gem*, and *caudex*, or *branch*, *stem*, and *root*, with their *decomposite appendages*, all of which are considered under seven distinct sections. The second chapter, which relates to the *composite Organs*, consists of five sections; treating respectively of the *epidermis*, *pulp*, *pith*, *cortical layers*, and *ligneous layers*; and the third, which is appropriated to the *elementary* or *vascular Organs*, takes cognizance, under four sections, of *utricles*, *tubes*, *apertures*, and *appendages*.

In the first chapter, Mr. Keith follows Gærtner as his guide, but by no means with servility; and, while he awards due praise to Daubenton and Desfontaines, he scruples not to expose the precipitancy of some of their deductions. In the course of the second chapter, after a glance at the leading

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book, therefore,
though it details
of attention; since
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Matter, *Tannin*,
ils, *Wax*, *Resins*,
rk, *Woody Fibre*,
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theories and conjectures relative to the nature and structure of the vegetable epidermis, he hazards the ensuing remark:

> 'But the epidermis seems to me to present, in some cases, an appearance to which no one of the foregoing descriptions or similitudes will correctly apply; and to exhibit a peculiarity of structure that does not appear to have been hitherto taken notice of. The epidermis of the inside of the petals of *Crocus vernus*, when placed under the microscope, does not present the appearance of a net-work, nor of an asemblage of cells, nor of the clusters of bubbles that form on the surface of liquor in a state of fermentation; but rather that of a thin and individual layer of parallel and tangent reeds of unequal lengths, interspersed with multitudes of minute and shining points, and resembling a front view of the false pipes of an organ. Hence the structure of the epidermis is found to be characterized by the same sort of variety of modification, as the structure of the other parts of the plant.'

With respect to the ultimate and elementary organs of which the vegetable mass is composed, our phytologist reduces them, under one modification or another, to *fibre*, *cellular tissue*, with or without *parenchyma*, and *reticulated membrane*. 'If it is asked,' he continues, 'of what the elementary organs are themselves composed, the reply is — they are composed, as appears from the same analysis, of a fine, colourless, and transparent membrane, in which the eye, aided by the assistance even of the best glasses, can discover no traces whatever of organization; which membrane we must also regard as constituting the ultimate and fundamental fabric of the elementary organs themselves, and by consequence of the whole of the vegetable body.' This inference, however, strikes us as somewhat too abrupt; for does not the very term *membrane* involve the idea of *organization?* and although it may, in the present case, from its extreme subtilty, transcend the limits of human analysis, we are not, from this circumstance alone, warranted to conclude that it is either simple or unorganized.—Having established, with much ingenuity and force of reasoning, the vascularity of the vegetable fibre, Mr. Keith adopts, with some modifications, M. Mirbel's descriptions of the different appearances and structure of the tubes.

Book III., which is intitled, 'of the primary Principles of Vegetables,' consists of two parts, and each part of two chapters. Part i. includes the *mechanical* and *chemical* methods of vegetable analysis, which form the subjects of two separate chapters; and the second relates to the products, simple and compound, of such analyses. The first part, however, which is dispatched in a very few pages, may be regarded rather as a short introduction than as a complete view of the subject; and the second chapter of the second part slightly touches on the simple products in half-a-dozen short paragraphs. That portion of the book, therefore, which reviews the compound products, although it details little that is new, will be found most deserving of attention; since it consists of twenty-nine sections, intitled, *Gum*, *Sugar*, *Starch*, *Gluten*, *Albumen*, *Fibrina*, *Extract*, *Colouring Matter*, *Tannin*, *Bitter Principle*, *Narcotic Principle*, *Acids*, *Oils*, *Wax*, *Resins*, *Gum-resins*, *Balsams*, *Camphor*, *Caoutchouc*, *Cork*, *Woody Fibre*, *Charcoal*, *the Sap*, *the Proper Juice*, *Ashes*, *Alkalies*, *Earths*, *Metallic Oxides*, and *General Remarks*. — The descriptive catalogue of the above-recited substances, though greatly condensed, conveys also much accurate information;—a circumstance which is of the more consequence, because several errors with respect to their origin have crept into some reputable works of pharmacy and medicine.

In the fourth book, which occupies the whole of the second volume, Mr. K. professes to develope the 'Phænomena of vegetable Life.' Its twelve chapters, each of which is subdivided into several sections, are intitled, *Germination of the Seed*, *Food of the vegetating Plant*, *Process of vegetable Nutrition*, *Process of vegetable Developement*, *Anomalies of vegetable Developement*, *Sexuality of Vegetables*, *Impregnation of the Seed*, *Changes consequent upon Impregnation*, *Propagation of the Species*, *Causes limiting Propagation*, *Evidence and Character of vegetable Vitality*, and *Casualties affecting the Life of Vegetables*. — These are, no doubt, interesting and important topics: but they have been treated and illustrated with more or less felicity by phytologists of every age; and the present writer does not affect to throw much new light on the mystery in which they are still unavoidably involved. Still, he has drawn his materials from the best sources, has arranged them in due order, and has sifted and scrutinized them with no common degree of sagacity; uniformly respecting the weight of truth more than that of names, and never allowing his understanding to be seduced by the vagaries of fancy or the childish ambition of propagating dogmatism. He has, moreover, put within the easy reach of the botanical student the most valuable portion of phytological information which is to be derived from the writings of Duhamel, Malpighi, Bonnet, Saussure, Senebier, Hedwig, Gærtner, Mirbel, &c., and he has noted some instances in which even those cautious and celebrated observers have gone astray. The recapitulation of the history and proofs of the sexuality of plants is conducted with singular ability, and can scarcely fail to convert the sceptical. The ensuing passages, also, are not unworthy of particular notice:

'An insect of the *Sphex* or *Ichneumon* kind had been observed by one of the gardeners of the botanic garden at Liverpool, to drag several large flies to a leaf of *Sarracenia adunca*, and to force them into the tubular part of it. On examination the leaf was found to be about half filled with water, in which the flies were now struggling; the other leaves were also examined, and were found crammed with dead or drowning flies. The leaves of *Sarracenia purpurea* are said to exhibit also the same phenomena, and seem peculiarly well adapted to entrap and confine flies, by having the margin beset with inverted hairs, rendering the escape of such insects as may have accidentally fallen into the watery tube, or are intentionally forced into it, impracticable; so that the putrid exhalation from the dead insects contained in the leaf often offends the nostrils, even in passing near the plant. Hence Sir J. E. Smith infers that the growth of the plant is perhaps benefited by means of the air evolved by the dead flies, which the water has been intended to tempt, and the leaves to entrap and retain. (Smith's Introduction, p. 196.) This ingenious conjecture is no doubt sufficiently plausible as far as the plant may be affected; but cannot be regarded as quite satisfactory till such time as it shall have been shown that the health of the plant is injured when insects are prevented from approaching it.' — (The same remark is applied to the celebrated *Nepenthes distillatoria*.)

'But, with all the above facilities, the impregnation of the seed would still in many cases be impracticable even in Hermaphrodite flowers, without further aid; particularly in such as do not perfect their stamens and pistils at the same time. For although the action of the wind cannot but be efficacious in some such cases; yet it will, in some others, naturally give to the flower a direction calculated rather to prevent than to aid the access of the pollen, by causing the corolla to veer round like a vane, according to the quarter from which it may happen to blow; or the very figure of the corolla may operate as a bar to the entrance of the pollen, which must be surmounted by extraordinary means.

'What then are the means instituted by nature for effecting the impregnation of Hermaphrodites so circumstanced? The true reply to this inquiry seems to have been first suggested by Kœlrëuter, namely, the agency of insects; and [it] has been since confirmed by the more leisurely observations of Spregnel, who found that the pollen in the above case is very generally conveyed from the anther to the stigma through the instrumentality of bees, though sometimes through that of insects peculiar to a species. The object of the insect is the discovery of honey, in quest of which, whilst it roves from flower to flower and rummages the recesses of the corolla, it unintentionally covers its body with pollen, which it conveys to the next flower it visits, and brushes off as it acquired it by rummaging for honey; so that part of it is almost unavoidably deposited on the stigma, and impregnation thus affected. Nor is this altogether so much a work of random as it at first appears. For it has been observed that even insects, which do not upon the whole confine themselves to one species of flower, will yet very often remain during the whole day upon the species they happen first to alight on in the morning. And their agency is also completely secured, from the necessity they are under of procuring food; though nature in her care for the impregnation of the vegetable has not only lodged a honey in the flower to tempt the taste of insects, but seems to have furnished also the means of attracting even the eye. This is thought to be done by means of the coloured spots with which many flowers secreting a honied fluid are marked, which Spregnel calls *maculæ indicantes*, as indicating the treasure that is contained in the flower, and thus attracting the attention of the insect. But the very figure of the flower seems often intended to produce the same effect. Spregnel has enumerated several hundreds of flowers which in their figure as well as colour resemble insects, and hence attract the notice of the plunderers of their honied stores. The beautiful example of the Bee Orchis is known to almost every body.

'Such then are the means by which the notice of the insect is attracted; and such also is the structure of the internal parts of the flower, that it must of necessity pass across the stamens and pistils in procuring the honey it is in quest of, which passage is often a work of considerable difficulty, particularly when the tubular part of the corolla is beset with hairs, as in many flowers of the class *Pentandria* and *Didynamia*. But one of the most difficult and singular cases of Hermaphrodite impregnation, as aided by the agency of insects, is that of the *Aristolochia Clematitis*. The corolla of this flower, which is tubular, but terminating upwards in a ligulate limb, is inflated into a globular figure at the base. The tubular part is internally beset with stiff hairs pointing downwards. The globular part contains the pistil, which consists merely of a germen and stigma together with the surrounding stamens. But the stamens being shorter than even the germen, cannot discharge the pollen so as to throw it upon the stigma, as the flower stands always upright, till after impregnation. And hence, without some additional and peculiar aid, the pollen must necessarily fall down to the bottom of the flower. Now the aid that nature has furnished in this case is that of the agency of the *Tipula penicornis*, a small insect, which, entering the tube of the corolla in quest of honey, descends to the bottom, and rummages about till it becomes quite covered with pollen, but not being able to force its way out again, owing to the downward position of the hairs, which converge to a point like the wires of a mouse-trap, and being somewhat impatient of its confinement, it brushes backwards and forwards, trying every corner, till after repeatedly traversing the stigma it covers it with pollen sufficient for its impregnation, in consequence of which the flower soon begins to droop, and the hairs to shrink to the side of the tube, effecting an easy passage for the escape of the insect. (Willdenow, p. 317.)'

Without encroaching on just and urgent claims, we can no farther indulge in making extracts. We trust, too, that our

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report of the *general* merits of these volumes, our statement of the particulars which they contain, and the frequency with which most of them have been treated by former writers, will be received as a sufficient apology for not prosecuting our analysis with more minuteness of detail. The second volume, in particular, would afford very ample scope for entertaining and instructive comment: but the passages to which we allude will be perused to more advantage in connection with their context; and the remarks, with which we might be desirous of accompanying them, we have repeatedly had occasion of submitting to our readers.

If we have formed a just estimate of the present author's candour and discernment, he will receive our few concluding strictures in the same friendly spirit with which we submit them to his consideration. After having briefly confuted the principal theories which have been proposed to account for the invariable determination of the radicle to descend into the earth, and of the plumelet to ascend into the air, he states, as his own conjecture, that it may be owing to an instinctive principle inherent in the plant: but is not such language equivalent to a confession of our ignorance of the cause? We have seldom felt inclined to propose the slightest amendment on the judicious and luminous arrangement of the different parts of Mr. K.'s subject: but, perhaps, it would have been advisable to have classed all the irregularities and deformities produced on the vegetable leaf, &c. by the puncture and breeding of insects, in that division which particularly relates to *casualties affecting the life of vegetables.* — The general character of his style will not derogate from his claims to the qualifications of good writing; since it is perspicuous, vigorous, and, on various occasions, not inelegant: but, when examined more particularly, it betrays some of those specks and blemishes which every polite scholar should be careful to avoid. In most cases, Mr. Keith wisely abstains from the use of metaphors: but, on one or two occasions on which he has had recourse to them, he treats them without much respect to the rules of rhetoric. Among other compliments, for example, which he pays to Linné, he tells us that this illustrious naturalist 'detected the clue by which he was to extricate himself from the intricacies of the labyrinth, and rear the superstructure of a legitimate method.' Now, though a clue be a classical guide through the mazes of a labyrinth, we never heard of its being employed in the rearing of a superstructure. In the very next page, we are presented with 'an anchor of stability, *involving an important question;*' and, in the next again, Linné once more steps forwards, '*founding*

'*founding and supporting* his conclusions on a *cloud* of the most indisputable facts.' — The author's collocation of the members of a sentence is also sometimes faulty; as 'They are then pounded, to a paste in mortars of marble, which is afterwards subjected to the press,' — instead of, They are then pounded, in mortars of marble, to a paste which, &c. — Again, 'But the leaves fall off when they have reached maturity of their own accord,'—for, But the leaves, when they have reached maturity, fall of their own accord. — *The whole*, combined with a genitive plural, for *all*, — as *the whole of the parts*, for *all the parts*, — is a mode of speech more defensible on the score of example than of precept. — Of the slovenly suppression of the relative pronoun, three examples occur in a single page; 'the bundles they form,' 'the net-work they compose,' and 'the functions they are to perform.' The colloquial vulgarisms of *lay* for *lie*, and *shook* for *shaken*, too often mar the comeliness of a period; and either grammar or the best usage of the English language is violated in such expressions as the following: 'agree *to* the same species;' — 'the form and contexture of the valves *is*;' — 'its general form and aspect *is*;' — 'as well as also;' — '*agreeable* to [agreeably]; — 'an indispensable,' for an *indispensable requisite*, — 'its atmosphere immediately *take* fire,' — 'Hassenfratz concluded, as he was no doubt well entitled, that,' &c.; — 'it is part only of the component principle of the atmospheric air that *are* adapted;' — 'when the perspiration and consequent absorption *is*;' — 'the presence and action of oxygen *is*;' — 'independent of that' [independently], &c. We are not much enamoured of *contractation* for *contraction*, *preventative* for *preventive*, and *explicate* for *explain*; nor can we approve of beginning a sentence, but especially a paragraph, with the conjunction *And*. As a full point, or period, which closes a sentence, intimates the *completion* of that sentence, the immediate occurrence of this conjunction, which requires the *addition* of something else to the argument or statement, is an inconsistency. The punctuation, indeed, is frequently deficient, and the list of *errata* is by much too limited. — The plates are well adapted to the purposes of illustration; and both an ample Table of Contents and an Index are supplied.

ART. III. *Memoirs of the Abbé Edgeworth*; containing his Narrative of the last Hours of Louis XVI. By C. Sneyd Edgeworth. 8vo. pp. 228. 7s. Boards. Hunter.

THE Abbé Edgeworth lived unknown to the world until the memorable day on which he attended Louis XVI. to the scaffold, and gave honourable evidence that he set at defiance the poignards of the Jacobins when the question lay between his personal danger and the discharge of his professional duty. His conduct on that occasion, and his power of communicating information concerning it, render his memoirs interesting; independently of which considerations, the publication of them is to be viewed only in the light of a tribute from a relative to the memory of a respected friend.

He was born in Ireland in the year 1745, at the vicarage-house of Edgeworth's town, in the county of Longford, in the immediate neighbourhood of which is the residence of the family of the well known female author of this name. His ancestors had been Protestants ever since the Reformation: but his father, having become a convert to the Catholic faith, determined to relinquish his living and to remove with his family to France, and settled at Toulouse. His son was educated first at the University of that city, and afterward at the Sorbonne in Paris, which continued to be considered as the proper seminary for giving a finish to Catholic studies. On undertaking the discharge of his professional duties, the Abbé preferred to reside in Paris; where he found, particularly among the poor Savoyards, many uninstructed and distressed objects. His ministry afterward received an extension among the humbler English and Irish of the French metropolis, many of whom stood in need of his attention and consolation. A man employed so much amid the abodes of poverty was not likely to take the steps necessary to gain favour at court; and, in fact, the modest and unassuming Abbé was not introduced to the King or the Queen till the time at which the terrors of the Revolution had driven from the metropolis, and even from France, all the most conspicuous ecclesiastics. His first patroness was the Princess Elizabeth, who had a strong tincture of devotion, and having been deprived of her aged confessor by death, applied for another to the *Supérieur des Missions étrangères*, a man of extensive acquaintance with his brethren. The superior had no hesitation in selecting Abbé Edgeworth as a person in whom the Princess might place implicit confidence, both in political and religious communications; and he was accordingly appointed her confessor shortly before the Revolution.

We find in this little volume several letters from the Abbé dated in 1789, and subsequently, which are chiefly remarkable as pointing out the gradual progress of alarm on the part of the adherents of the royal family. The late Dr. Moylan (titular Bishop of Cork) having urged Mr. Edgeworth to come over and settle in Ireland, the latter answered, in the end of 1789, to the following effect:

'"As for myself, I must allow that my former ties to France are now much weakened, and that the prospect of finishing my days with you is particularly enticing: but, alas! my dear friend, what would you do with me? I should be mere lumber in your diocese. You want strong and laborious operators; and I am not that. I must own to you, that from the beginning of our troubles, I had some thoughts of leaving France for good and all; but after taking advice from people who knew me, I resolved to stand my ground; or, if obliged to accompany my mother, to come back to my post. The reason given to me was, that Almighty God seemed to bless my weak exertions here, and of course that I should not give up my little flock, unless clearly called by Providence to some other place, especially as the little I do was mostly in favour of people who could not well do without me, or without some other person, who would equally be lost to the mission." '—

'The editor has carefully copied these letters from the originals in his possession, not venturing to alter the inaccuracies of style or orthography, which betray the Abbé's estrangement from his native language, and that he not only habitually expressed himself but usually thought in French.

'The sympathy of the public has been too long engaged by letters in rounded periods, full of affected description and pompous frivolity, composed to be handed about amongst literary gossips, during the life, and to be splendidly published at the death of the writer; but some readers will dwell with interest on the genuine simplicity of these humble epistles. They never could have been intended for the public eye;—their very defects become their recommendation.

'The illiberal, who suppose that something dangerous must flow from the pen of every Papist, when writing in confidence to a brother-clergyman, will be surprized to find in these letters neither bigotry nor treason. They shew the unambitious character and the pious occupations of the writer.—Could we follow him from his morning to his evening devotions, we should find the interval filled up with none of those inconsistencies, which so often make the good sigh and the wicked sneer.

'In the midst of splendour, when the great, perplexed with intrigue and flattery, sought for simplicity and truth; in scenes of squalid misery, where repenting vice had crept to die; in the convent, or in the drawing-room, the Abbé Edgeworth was always the same. His serene countenance diffused tranquillity wherever he appeared.—With controversy our Abbé did not interfere; content with the sure and blameless course of his peaceful calling. His kindness and his charity led the way to the hearts of his flock, and no doubts of the truth of what he taught disturbed their understandings.'

From this time forwards, the Revolution continued to make progress, now under promising and then under threatening circumstances, until the unsuccessful flight of the King (in 1791) led to the preponderance of the republican party and to the alarming scenes of the following year. Mr. Edgeworth continued to obey the invitations of Madame Elizabeth in repairing from time to time to the palace, and excited the surprize of the King and Queen by the confidence with which he continued to resort to their suspected abode when no other clergyman ventured to shew himself at court, unless completely divested of his clerical dress. "When I turn my thoughts," says the Abbé, "to these shocking times, I am surprized at my own boldness, but Providence, I suppose, made me blind to the hazard that I incurred."—After the fatal 10th of August, the royal family were removed to the state-prison called the Temple, and the residence of the Abbé was broken open in the night by a revolutionary party. Fortunately, the first searches were too precipitate to lead to the discovery of any important papers; and before a second visit the Abbé found means to destroy all such as might have operated against him. On the dreadful days of September, he incurred the most imminent hazard of his life: but, by quitting his clerical dress and leaving his house before the approach of the assassins, he succeeded in escaping their hands, and in reaching a place of concealment in the neighbourhood of Paris. Here he remained for several weeks, until the Archbishop of Paris, at the moment of his flight, sent him a letter empowering and requesting him to undertake the care of the Prelate's flock in his absence. The Abbé now began to think of returning to the capital; and, while pausing between a proper regard to himself and his duty to the cause of religion, he received, through the medium of the lamented Malesherbes, a message from Louis XVI., which, replete as the prospect was with danger, induced him to postpone every consideration for that of consoling the last moments of his sovereign:

'"The fate of the King was not yet decided, when M. de Malesherbes, to whom I had not the honour of being personally known, and who could neither ask me to his house nor come to mine, requested me to meet him at Mad. de Senosan's, where I accordingly waited on him.—There M. de Malesherbes delivered to me a message from the King *, signifying the wish of that unfortunate monarch that I should attend him at his last moments, if the atrocity of his subjects should be contented with nothing less than

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'* I think it right here to repeat the words of Louis the Sixteenth, when he gave this message to M. de Malesherbes: "This is a strange commission, M. de Malesherbes," said the King, "for me to give to a *philosopher;* but if you should ever be doomed to die, as I must die, I wish that you may have, as I have, the support of religion. Religion would console you, far better than philosophy."—*Note by the Editor.*'

than his death. — If the danger to which I must be exposed should appear to me too great, he begged that I would name another clergyman to attend him. He left the choice entirely to me. — Any man would have felt himself inclined to comply with such a message. I felt it as a command that could not be disobeyed; and I conjured M. de Malesherbes to represent to the King all that a feeling heart, broken by grief, dictated to me at the moment. —

' " On the 20th of January, at four o'clock in the afternoon, a stranger called on me, and presented to me a note, containing these words: 'The Executive Council having business of the highest importance to communicate to Citizen Edgeworth de Firmont, invites him to come instantly to its sittings.' — The stranger added, that he had orders to accompany me, and that a carriage waited for us in the street. I went with him to the Thuilleries, where the Council held its meetings. I found all the ministers assembled. As soon as I entered, they arose, and all surrounded me with eagerness. The Minister of Justice first addressed me. 'Are you,' said he, 'the Citizen Edgeworth de Firmont?' I replied that I was. 'Louis Capet,' continued the Minister, 'having expressed to us his desire to have you near him at his last moments, we have sent for you to know whether you consent to the service he requires of you.' — I replied, that since the King had signified his wishes, and named me, it became my duty to attend him. 'Then,' pursued the Minister, 'you will go with me to the Temple, whither I will conduct you.' — And immediately taking a bundle of papers from the table, whispered a moment with the other Ministers, and going out in haste, ordered me to follow him. An escort of horse waited for us at the door with the Minister's carriage, into which I got, and he followed me. At this time all the Catholic clergy of Paris were dressed like other citizens, so that I was not in a clerical dress. —

' " Our drive to the Temple passed in gloomy silence. Two or three times, however, the Minister made an attempt to break it: he drew up the carriage windows, and exclaimed, 'Great God, with what a dreadful commission am I charged! What a Man!' added he, speaking of the King. 'What resignation! what courage! — no! — human nature alone could not give such fortitude; he possesses something beyond it.' —

' " When we reached the apartment of the King, all the doors of which were open, I perceived him in a group of eight or ten persons; it consisted of the Minister of Justice, accompanied by some Members of the Commune, who came to read to him the fatal decree, which *sentenced him to death on the following day*. He was calm, tranquil, even with an aspect of benignity, while not one of those, who surrounded him, had an air of composure.

' " As soon as he saw me, he waved his hand for them to retire: they obeyed in silence: he himself shut the door after them, and I found myself alone with my sovereign.' —

' " He drew from his pocket a sealed paper, and broke it open. It was his will, which he had made in the month of December, at a period a period when he was uncertain whether any religious assistance would be allowed to him in his last moments.

' "All those who have read this paper, so interesting and so worthy of a Christian King, can easily judge of the deep impression it must have made on me. But what most astonished me, was that the monarch had fortitude sufficient to read it himself, which he did nearly twice over. His voice was firm, and no change was to be seen in his countenance, except when he read names most dear to him — then all his tenderness was awakened, he was obliged to pause a moment, and his tears flowed notwithstanding his efforts to restrain them — but when he read passages that concerned himself alone, and that related only to his personal calamities, he seemed no more affected than if he had heard the misfortunes of an indifferent person related.

' "Perceiving when he had finished reading, that the Royal Family were not coming, the King hastened to inquire from me the state of his clergy and of the French church. Some things he had learned notwithstanding the rigour of his confinement; he knew in general that the French ecclesiastics had been obliged to fly their country, and had been received in London, but he was entirely ignorant of particulars. The little that I thought it my duty to tell him, seemed to make a great impression upon his Majesty's mind; he deplored the fate of his clergy, and he expressed the greatest admiration for the people of England, who had mitigated their sufferings. But he did not confine himself to these general inquiries, he entered into particulars that surprised me; he wished to know what had become of many of the clergy in whose welfare he took a peculiar interest. The Cardinal de la Rochefoucault and the Bishop de Clermont seemed to fix his attention, but his eagerness redoubled at the name of the Archbishop of Paris: he inquired where he was, what he was doing, and whether I had the power of corresponding with him: —' Tell him,' said the King, ' that I die in his communion, and that I never have acknowledged any pastor but him.' —

' "I don't know by what chance the conversation fell upon the Duke of Orleans; the King seemed to be well acquainted with his intrigues, and with the horrid part he had taken at the convention, but he spoke of him without any bitterness, and with pity rather than with anger: ' What have I done to my cousin,' he exclaimed, ' that he should so persecute me? What object could he have? Oh he is more to be pitied than I am! — my lot is melancholy no doubt, but his is much more so. No! I would not change with him!'

" ' This most interesting conversation was interrupted by one of the commissaries, who came to inform the King that his family were come down, and that he was at length permitted to see them. At these words he appeared extremely agitated, and he broke from me with precipitation. The interview took place, as well as I could judge, for I was not present at it, in a little room which was only separated by a glass-door from that which the commissaries occupied; so that they could see and hear all that past. Even I, though shut up in the cabinet where the King had left me, could easily distinguish their voices, and I was involuntarily in some degree witness to the most touching scene I ever heard. It would be impossible for me to describe this agonizing interview; not only tears were shed, and sobs were heard, but piercing cries, which reached the outer court of the Temple. The King, the Queen, Monseigneur, the Dauphin, Madame Elizabeth, Madame Royale, all bewailed themselves at once, and their voices were confounded; at length their tears ceased, for their strength was exhausted: they then spoke in a low voice, and with some degree of tranquillity.

‘ “ The conversation lasted near an hour, and the King parted from his family, leaving them the hope of seeing him in the morning.

‘ “ He returned immediately to me, but in a state of agitation which shewed that he was wounded to the soul.

“ ‘ Oh, Sir!’ cried he, throwing himself into a chair, ‘ what an interview have I gone through. Why should I love so tenderly, and why should I be so tenderly beloved? But it is past! Let us forget every thing else to turn my thoughts to that alone which is now of importance — to that which should at this moment concentrate all my feelings.’ ”

The Abbé was extremely desirous of administering the sacrament to the King, but had little hope that the barbarians appointed to guard him would enter into such feelings, or would allow their deposed master to receive this final consolation and support. Mr. E. ventured, however, to make the request, and met with considerable difficulty; several of the commissioners imagining that it was a mere pretext to conceal the taking of poison, and to defeat their grand end of a solemn execution. Of their religious creed it is unnecessary to say any thing, since at that time it would have been quite unfashionable, we might almost add treasonable, for Parisians to have professed a belief in any religion. Fortunately, however, one person more liberal or more persuasive than the rest found means to extract from this indifference a compliance with the King's request. “ All forms of worship,” he said, “ are free; let us not oppose Louis Capet in the enjoyment of that which he prefers.” — The remainder of the evening was passed by the King and the Abbé in anxious conversation; they took a few hours of rest in their respective apartments, and were awakened on the next morning at five o'clock; when the Abbé, repairing once more to the King's chamber, found him in the same tranquil and even placid frame of mind which he had displayed the night before.

“ ‘ My God,’ said he, ‘ how happy I am in the possession of my religious principles! Without them, what should I now be? But with them, how sweet death appears to me. Yes, there dwells on high an incorruptible Judge, from whom I shall receive the justice refused to me on earth.’

' " The sacred offices I performed at this time, prevent my relating more than a few sentences, out of many interesting conversations which the King held with me, during the last sixteen hours of his life; but by the little that I have told, it may be seen how much might be added, if it were consistent with my duty to say more.

' " Morning began to dawn, and the drums sounded in all the sections of Paris. An extraordinary movement was heard in the Tower — it seemed to freeze the blood in my veins; but the King, more calm than I was, after listening to it for a moment, said to me without emotion, ' 'Tis probably the national guard beginning to assemble.'—

' " From seven o'clock till eight, various persons came frequently under different pretences to knock at the door of the cabinet, and each time I trembled lest it should be the last. But the King, with more firmness, rose without emotion, went to the door, and quietly answered the people who thus interrupted us. —

' " After having answered one of the commissaries who came to interrupt us, he returned, and said with a smile, ' These people see poniards and poison every where; they fear that I shall destroy myself. Alas! they little know me, to kill myself would indeed be weakness. No! since it is necessary, I know how I ought to die.' We heard another knock at the door — it was to be the last. It was Santerre and his crew. The King opened the door as usual. They announced to him (I could not hear in what terms) that he must prepare for death. '*I am occupied*,' said he, with an air of authority, ' wait for me. In a few minutes I will return to you.' Then having shut the door, he kneeled at my feet. ' It is finished, Sir,' said he, ' give me your last benediction, and pray that it may please God to support me to the end.' He soon arose, and, leaving the cabinet, advanced towards the wretches who were in his bed-chamber. — The King cried out in a firm tone, '*Let us proceed*,' at which words they all moved on; the King crossed the first court, formerly the garden, on foot: he turned back once or twice towards the tower, as if to bid adieu to all most dear to him on earth; and by his gestures it was plain that he was then trying to collect all his strength and firmness. At the entrance of the second court, a carriage waited, two gens-d'armes held the door: at the King's approach one of these men entered first, and placed himself in front, the King followed and placed me by his side *; at the back of the carriage, the other gens-d'arme jumped in last, and shut the door.'—

' * The Abbé Edgeworth has here, with admirable modesty, omitted, what his private letter to his brother mentions, that Louis the Sixteenth thought that the attendance of his Confessor had closed when he quitted the Temple, and was equally astonished and consoled by his accompanying him to the place of execution. — *Note by the Editor*.'

'" The procession lasted almost two hours, the streets were lined with citizens all armed, some with pikes and some with guns, and the carriage was surrounded by a body of troops, formed of the most desperate people of Paris. As another precaution they had placed before the horses a great number of drums, intended to drown any noise or murmur in favour of the King; but how could they be heard, no body appeared either at the doors or windows, and in the street nothing was to be seen but armed citizens. Citizens, all rushing towards the commission of a crime, which perhaps they detested in their hearts.

'" The carriage proceeded thus in silence to the Place de Louis XV. and stopped in the middle of a large space that had been left round the scaffold; this space was surrounded with cannon, and, beyond, an armed multitude extended as far as the eye could reach. — As soon as the King had left the carriage, three guards surrounded him and would have taken off his clothes, but he repulsed them with haughtiness: he undressed himself, untied his neckloth, opened his shirt, and arranged it himself. The guards, whom the determined countenance of the King had for a moment disconcerted, seemed to recover their audacity. They surrounded him again, and would have seized his hands. 'What are you attempting?' said the King, drawing back his hands. 'To bind you,' answered the wretches. 'To bind *me*,' said the King, with an indignant air. 'No! I shall never consent to that, do what you have been ordered, but you shall never bind me!' The guards insisted, they raised their voices, and seemed to wish to call on others to assist them.

'" Perhaps this was the most terrible moment of this most dreadful morning; another instant, and the best of Kings would have received from his rebellious subjects indignities too horrid to mention — indignities that would have been to him more insupportable than death. Such was the feeling expressed on his countenance. Turning towards me, he looked at me steadily, as if to ask my advice. Alas! it was impossible for me to give any, and I only answered by silence; but, as he continued this fixed look of inquiry, I replied, 'Sire, in this new insult, I only see another trait of resemblance between your Majesty and the Saviour who is about to recompense you.' At these words he raised his eyes to heaven, with an expression that can never be described. 'You are right,' said he, 'nothing less than his example should make me submit to such a degradation.' Then turning to the guards, 'Do what you will, I will drink of the cup even to the dregs.'

'" The path leading to the scaffold was extremely rough and difficult to pass; the King was obliged to lean on my arm; and from the slowness with which he proceeded, I feared for a moment that his courage might fail; but what was my astonishment, when arrived at the last step, I felt that he suddenly let go my arm, and I saw him cross with a firm foot the breadth of the whole scaffold; silence, by his look alone, fifteen or twenty drums that were placed opposite to him; and in a voice so loud, that it must have been heard at the Pont Tournant, I heard him pronounce distinctly these memorable words. '*I die innocent of all the crimes laid to my charge; I pardon those who have occasioned my death; and I pray to God that the blood you are now going to shed may never be visited on France.*'

' "He was proceeding, when a man on horseback, in the national uniform, waved his sword, and with a ferocious cry ordered the drums to beat. Many voices were at the same time heard encouraging the executioners. They seemed reanimated themselves, and seizing with violence the most virtuous of kings, they dragged him under the axe of the guillotine, which with one stroke severed his head from his body. All this passed in a moment.—At first an awful silence prevailed; at length some cries of '*Vive la Republique!*' were heard. By degrees the voices multiplied, and in less than ten minutes this cry, a thousand times repeated, became the universal shout of the multitude, and every hat was in the air." '

On quitting the scaffold, the Abbé had sufficient presence of mind to turn his course in the direction in which the surrounding multitude were least closely wedged, and he was soon lost in the crowd. He then repaired to M. de Malesherbes, for whom the unfortunate Louis had given him a very important charge; and he found the venerable advocate of his monarch bathed in tears, and bursting forth into bitter effusions on the barbarity of his countrymen. The first use which he made of his recollection was to awaken the Abbé to a sense of his danger, and to urge him to "fly from this land of horror." There could be no doubt that the advice was sound, and that the vengeance of the Jacobins would soon overtake one who had shewn so much attachment to the King: but Mr. Edgeworth still lingered in the neighbourhood of Paris, in the hope of being serviceable to Madame Elizabeth, and perhaps of being permitted to compensate for the absence of the archbishop from his diocese. He soon, however, learned that strict inquiries were made after him, and found it necessary to exchange one place of concealment for another until the succeeding May, when he eluded observation and reached Bayeux in Normandy, a retired town nearly 200 miles from Paris. Here he might easily have crossed the channel for England: but Madame Elizabeth was still alive, and he could not relinquish the idea that he might, by some means, be instrumental in her rescue. At last, he obtained intelligence of the death of this mild and excellent character, who was led to the scaffold only sixteen hours after she had been brought before a pretended tribunal. This catastrophe having taken place, it became the duty of the Abbé to withdraw from

France, since he had been intrusted with certain commands from the Princess to be executed by him in this country in the event of her death. For this purpose, he crossed the Channel and proceeded to Edinburgh, to wait on Monsieur, the present King of France; after which, returning to London, he had an interview with Mr. Pitt, and was apprized that government intended to settle a pension on him for life. He expressed a proper sense of gratitude, but nobly declined the pension, because he "could not think of adding to the expences already incurred by our government on account of the French emigrants."

Louis XVIII., having gone to Poland, invited Mr. Edgeworth to come to him, and, on his arrival, urged him to remain permanently with him and the royal family. With them he accordingly continued during the remainder of his life, comforting them in their distresses, and administering all possible assistance to the poor in the different places of their residence. It was in the exercise of these charitable offices, and in attending French prisoners at Mittau who laboured under a contagious fever, that he caught the same disorder, which brought him to his grave in the sixty-second year of his age. — The virtues of the Abbé were those of private life, and he appeared on the public stage only on one memorable occasion. The editor has abstained from all political discussion, and in fact gives scarcely any information of this nature beyond that which is contained in a few letters from the Abbé himself and others. The original French of these documents is given in an appendix, which is nearly of the same length with the memoir itself.

ART. IV. *Illustrations of Hogarth*; i. e. Hogarth illustrated, from Passages in Authors he never read, and could not understand. 8vo. pp. 56. 3s. sewed. Nichols and Co. 1816.

HOGARTH, we all know, was not a classical scholar, and could neither understand nor read the authors of antiquity: but, since the Latin poets, Horace in particular, may be presumed to have drawn from nature as exhibited to them, and since Hogarth undoubtedly did the same from human nature as presented to his eyes, the pen of the poets and the pencil of the painter must necessarily betray occasional coincidences, both in their subjects and in the manner of treating them. The author of this whimsical and lively little work, therefore, proposes to illustrate some of Hogarth's scenes by the quotation and application of a number of scraps from Latin and a few other writers, in the same way in which many persons collect parallel passages from different sources in their common-place books. Horace, Juvenal, and Terence, the former especially, are most frequently put under requisition: but the illustrator does not confine himself to the writers "*melioris ævi ac notæ*," taking on the contrary a wide range, commencing with Aristotle and ending with Anstey, the well-known "Bath Guide:" though, fortunately, in the *Auctorum syllabus* prefixed to his pages, about thirty names occur between these two worthies, who would not look altogether so well in juxta-position. Great affectation characterizes this catalogue, many of the persons named in it not being summoned above once or twice from their dark abodes to throw light on Hogarth's pictures: but the illustrator kindly informs us how long each of them flourished before or since the commencement of the Christian æra.

Dr. Warton's observation on Hogarth occurring to this author, editor, or illustrator, (for it is difficult to devise a proper appellation for him,) "that the works of this celebrated painter have more of what the ancients call ΗΘΟΣ in them, the *Mores*, the *Morum proprietates*, than the compositions of any other modern whatsoever," he is tempted to improve on the idea, and subjoins his opinion that Hogarth's ethics are arranged with the accuracy of Aristotle's rules for the division of tragedy in his Pöetics. The antient critic's parts of tragedy are six: — viz. Μυϑος,—’Ηθη,—Λεξις, — Διανοια,—’Οψις,—Μελοποια: of which the first five, says the illustrator, may be traced in every series of Hogarth's works; Style, — Moral, — Story, — Sentiment, — Scene; — and he might have added the Μελοποια, in "the Enraged Musician." We trust that these five English words are not intended to translate the five Greek in the order in which they respectively stand; and, indeed, coming from so redoubted a champion of antiquity, this cannot be the case: but it is rather insidious in him to lead his younger readers into the possible error that Μυϑος in Aristotle signifies *style*, and Λεξις *story*.

Not to *disfigure the page* with any more heathen Greek, let us turn our eyes to the Latin quotations. Here it is necessary to state *in limine* that the illustrator claims a free right of *interpolation* in the works of the antients, so as to make them suit his purpose; on some occasions patching in words of his own, putting new cloth to an old garment, (in which cases he is *boná fide* an author, or at least a reputable botcher;) and on others dove-tailing in scraps of different authors with all the ingenuity of a cabinet-maker. Let him not blush at his excellence in these mechanical trades; they were the pride of the Stoic; from which sect he is discriminated, as far as we see, by only one prominent distinction. The words "*præcipuè sanus*" of Horace require a great deal of interpolation to make them sit easy on him.

He proposes to illustrate the three series of *The Harlot's Progress*, *The Rake's Progress*, and the *Marriage à la Mode*; and he has a few spare quotations for one or two of the single pictures of Hogarth. The plan is to divide each series according to Aristotle's system, or some other, as nearly as it may be possible: 2dly, to apply to each picture, as a part of the series, such passages as the subject admits; and, 3dly, to re-consider the separate characters in each, and illustrate them from similar sources.

We will in the first place present our readers with a dish of neatly applied passages, taken at random and indifferently from all the series: after which, a small second course of bad puns and mis-quotations will be necessary to complete the entertainment. We must presume our readers to be familiar with the pictures in question.

Harlot's Progress. — Plate 1. — The arrival of the young Woman from the country.

> ——— "*Mulier quædam abhinc triennium*
> Eboraco *commigravit huc viciniæ;*
> *Inopiâ, et cognatorum negligentiâ*
> *Coacta, egregiâ formâ, atque ætate integrâ.*
> *Primùm, hæc pudicè vitam parcè ac duriter*
> *Agebat*," &c.[*]

Plate 3. — The Prostitute in a miserable garret in Drury-lane.

> "*Nunc, instructa pulchre ad perniciem*
> *Victum vulgo quærere, quæstum occipit.*" [†]
>
> "*Harum* videre *ingluviem, sordes, inopiam;*
> *Quam* inhonestæ *solæ sint domi, atque avidæ cibi,*
> *Quo pacto* ex jure hesterno *panem atrum vorent.*" [‡]

"*Jure hesterno*" is here not badly translated 'Last night's Porter:' but "*inhonestæ*" by no means signifies dishonesty in the way in which the illustrator usurps it, by applying it to the stolen watch lying on the bed.

Rake's Progress. — Plate 2. — The young Man dressed in the ton, surrounded with fidlers, opera-singers, jockies, &c. &c.

> "*Cum pulchris tunicis sumit nova consilia et spes.*" [§]
>
> "*Cotile, bellus homo es, dicunt hoc, Cotile, multi.*" [||]

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[*] Ter. Eun. [†] Ter. Heaut. [‡] Ter. Eun. Act v. s. 4.
[§] Hor. 1 Ep. xviii. [||] Martial, Ep. iii. 63.

Plate 3. — Interior of a low Bagnio.

" *Ecce* pudicitiæ *veteris vestigia nostræ.*" *

Plates 3. and 4.

" *Quem damnosa Venus, quem præceps alea nudat.*" †

The last word whimsically applied to the state of the hero in the scene.

Marriage à la Mode. — Plate 5. — The Nobleman's Wife discovered with the lawyer, and the escape of the latter.

——" *Vir rure recurrat :*
Janua frangatur : latret canis : undique magno
Pulsa domus strepitu resonet." ‡
——" *Pallida lecto*
Desiliat mulier ; miseram se conscia clamans." §

" *Discinctâ tunicâ fugiendum est, ac pede nudo,*
Deprendi miserum ; Fabio vel judice coram."

For a few of these, and such as these, we give the illustrator some credit; confessing at the same time that most of his best quotations are too obvious, and drawn from sources too well known to amuse much on the score of novelty. However, if our " *Euge et bellè*" will give him any pleasure, he is welcome to it so far: but now, Sir, stand at the bar, and, before your reviewers and their readers, answer to the following arraignment for bad puns and unpardonable mis-quotations. On the first charge, the following proofs among others have been delivered into our court of critical inquiry.

The girl singing the obscene song of the ***Black Joke.*** Plate 3. *Rake's Progress.*

" Nigra *est, — hanc tu, Romane, caveto.*"

The husband, wife, and steward. — Plate 2. — *Marriage à la Mode.* The lady yawning:

" *Perfidus Ixion, Io* (heigho !) *vaga, tristis Orestes.*"

Fie, for shame ! —

The Opera-singer. — Plate 2. — *Rake's Progress.*

" *Opera agro nona Sabino.*"

These instances may suffice to convict the illustrator as an irreclaimable and bad punster, before any jury of his fellows: but what shall we say of a writer who, not having the fear of reviewers before his eyes, has ventured to impose on his Majesty's liege-subjects the following passages as real and genuine Latin verse goods; and, the better to conceal his fraud, has not even marked his own interpolations, as he elsewhere does, in the same case?

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* Juvenal, vi. 14.

† Hor. 1 Ep. xviii. 21.

‡ Hor. 1 Sat. ii. 127.

§ Ibid. 129.

The Dancing-Master:

> " *Motus* docturus *gaudet Ionicos.*" —(Hor. 3 Od. vi. 21.)

No, Sir, *this* line is not in Horace, and you knew that it was not.

The Nobleman's portrait. — Plate 1. — *Marr. à la Mode.*

> " *Cœlo tonantem credidimus Jovem*
> *Regnare;* at *præsens Divus habebitur*
> *Augustus.*" Hor. 3 Od. v. 1.

We must bind him over to keep the peace with the Alcaic metre.

The Rake's Marriage:

> " *Connubio jungunt stabili, propriéque dicabant*
> *Non benè junctarum discordia semina rerum.*"

This last, we are told, is to be found in Ovid's Metamorphoses, but, prudently enough, no reference is made to the passage. This, however, looks something like modesty; the metamorphose of these words being the real and sole property of the illustrator himself, although with an amiable diffidence he would attribute it to a higher name.

We must now quit the court, with little doubt as to the verdict which will be given by all our readers.

As a *jeu d'esprit,* this tract is not without originality of conception and occasional neatness of execution: but it betrays considerable absurdity, and much flippancy of style. It may form a tolerably entertaining companion for a short journey in a post-chaise, adding little to our luggage and something to our amusement: but, when we are told that it is also printed in quarto as an appendix to Nichols's and Steevens's "Biographical Memoirs of Hogarth," we must assure both the author and the publisher that they have lost sight of the true nature and value of the work, which must necessarily consign it to the grave of all ephemeral productions of the press.

Art. V. *Letters from Portugal, Spain, and France,* written during the Campaigns of 1812, 1813, and 1814, addressed to a Friend in England; describing the leading Features of the Provinces passed through, and the State of Society, Manners, Habits, &c. of the People. By S. D. Broughton. 8vo. pp. 418. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Numerous as have been our books of travels, particularly in late years, we still feel ourselves so favourably prepossessed towards all that wears the aspect of personal inspection and faithful narrative, that we omit no opportunity of shewing attention to the reports of our officers who have served abroad. Mr. Broughton went to Portugal in the end of 1812, attached in a medical capacity to the British army; and, after having passed a few months at Lisbon, he proceeded to the frontier, and advanced through Spain in the campaign which will be for ever rendered memorable by the battle of Vittoria. He made it, he says, an invariable rule to note down at the close of each day every circumstance which seemed to him worthy of attention, and he was thus enabled to acquire materials sufficient for the present volume. Whether his remarks were actually written in the convenient shape of 'Letters to his Friends,' we shall not pretend to determine: but we have no hesitation in believing that the author 'scrupulously abstained from recording any thing that did not immediately come within the sphere of his own observation, or on the truth of which his own experience had not taught him to rely;' and, whatever may be the defects of his work as a literary composition, we see no reason to consider him as having any favourite tenets to urge with the public, or as writing with any other intention than that of making an impartial report.

From the localities of which the book treats, it may be divided into three parts; 1st, Portugal; 2dly, Spain; and, 3dly, the South of France. — In reviewing Laborde's account of Spain, (M. R. vols. lxii, lxiii.) we took occasion to introduce a variety of remarks and extracts illustrative of the topography of that country; and in our notice of Rehfue's journey to Madrid in 1808 (M. R. vol. lxviii.) we enlarged on the national manners and state of education. Of Portugal we treated, but with more brevity, in analyzing (M. R. vols. lxviii. lxxii.) Dr. Halliday's "Observations on the State of Portugal and of the Portuguese Troops;" while the Pyrenees, which may be said to form one of the prominent topics of the present work, were described at considerable length in our article (M. R. vol. lxxv.) on the publication of M. Ramond, a French traveller in these lofty regions. We therefore beg leave to refer our readers to these predecessors of Mr. Broughton, and to confine our extracts from his publication to topics which did not fall under their cognizance; an exclusion of which he will find no reason to complain, since his most interesting passages are not affected by it. We begin with a *Description of Lisbon.*

'The houses of the Portuguese noblesse and rich merchants have an air of grandeur and splendor. But most of those forming the streets are in a very bad state of repair, though from their loftiness, balconies, and whitened walls, they present an imposing appearance upon a cursory and general view. The streets are now better lighted than those of most English towns: though in former days they wanted this advantage, no lights being perceptible except some few faint glimmerings which superstition placed before statues of the Virgin Mary. It is consequently not so dangerous as formerly to walk through Lisbon at night, when robbers infesting the streets under the protection of darkness, and the contents of various vessels from the windows, united with the hungry dogs awaiting their fall, conspired to assail you with no trifling alarms. It is true the lamps are rather scantily distributed, but they are larger in size, and supplied with better oil than ours. Very few streets have any path-way raised upon their sides, which makes it disagreeable to foot-passengers. The two finest squares are the Roscio, and the Praca de Commercio. — Two handsome streets also furnished with piazzas, called Gold and Silver-street, connect the two squares, and form what may be called the Bond-street of Lisbon. There are also some public gardens (somewhat resembling those of Lincoln's-Inn) near the Roscio, in which the fashionables of the town occasionally walk. —

'The churches particularly attract the eye of a stranger from their majestic size, and in some instances from their elegance. — The bridge which connects Lisbon with Bellem is a strong and handsome work, and is famous for a severe struggle when the French were driven away from the city. Bellem is a cleaner and pleasanter town to reside in than Lisbon. From the extremity of one to that of the other includes a distance of about five or six miles. The prospect from the upper part of this town facing the entrance to the harbour is very fine, and from the neighbouring heights a cool and refreshing air is enjoyed. Bellem has always been the residence of the court. The Prince Regent has an old palace here in bad repair and dismantled of its furniture. The gardens are in somewhat better condition, and laid out in the same formal style which we see represented in the old prints of the gardens of the last century. They contain abundance of delightful orange-trees, at this season of the year creating the most fragrant scent, and loaded with fruit, with which those who visit the gardens are allowed to regale themselves.'—

'I shall now proceed to give you some notion of the interior construction of the houses. — In the oldest houses, dark, dirty and moth-eaten tapestry lines the walls, and covers the bedding and chairs. Almost every house is furnished with a balcony, it forming one of the chief amusements of the families to stand in it for hours looking into the streets. The panes of glass in the windows (always of a very inferior quality) are mostly broken to pieces, and are rarely as far as I can understand repaired; which indeed is the case with almost every thing in their houses. Their furniture seldom exceeds a few tables and chairs, and some grotesque figures of the Virgin and our Saviour carefully preserved, with abundance of small crosses dispersed about the room: one of the latter is commonly suspended over a bason of holy water, and placed by the head of the bed in order (as they informed me) to defeat the machinations of evil spirits.

'As the houses seem constructed entirely to alleviate the effects of heat, they are not caculated to preserve the inhabitants from cold, and, as a substitute for a grate, a small iron vase is used into which charcoal is put previously burnt to a red heat to dissipate the noxious fumes: but the unpleasant and certainly unwholesome effect, which this mode of warming a room produces, frequently counterbalances the advantage derived from its heat.— The natural indolence of the Portuguese occasions them to be careless and slovenly in their domestic arrangements. The dirt is rarely swept from the floors, and to the comforts of a scrubbing-brush and soap and water they are total strangers. In order to dissipate the effluvia pretty generally prevailing in this town, they are accustomed to burn dried lavender in all their rooms. With respect however to their house-linen, I must do them the justice to say, they are more particular, having a great change which they never suffer to be long in use without being washed. Neither soap, nor any substitute for it, is used in this operation. Their mode of washing is performed by women, who are seen in groupes up to their knees in a running stream of water, and when they have rubbed, and squeezed, and dashed the linen sufficiently against large stones, it is spread around upon the banks to be dried and bleached by the sun, which soon gives it a beautiful whiteness. Ironing is used only among the higher circles for fine linen.'—

'Chocolate, rice, cabbage, oil, garlic, onions, pumpkins, chesnuts, &c. form the basis of their principal dishes, into which animal food rarely enters, with the exception of *Buccalao* or dried fish. Messes of these are constantly stewing over a little wood fire, and partaken of by every member of the family seated round the fire in the most patriarchal simplicity. But the more wealthy (though nevertheless not very agreeable to an English palate) produce an elegant assortment of dishes upon their tables, fine fruit, and pleasant light wines. The fault usually found with their cookery by Englishmen is the employment of too much art, and the very liberal distribution of garlic, oil, and onions throughout all their dishes.

'The best produce of the markets consists of fresh and dried fruits; every other article, such as meat, fish, &c. being scanty and inferior in quality.—

'With respect to their carriages the following are chiefly in use. Cabriolets constructed to hold two persons and furnished with leathern fronts to be opened or shut at pleasure, and drawn by two mules, stand in the streets for hire. They are very rough, dirty, and slow machines; the driver with a miserable cloak thrown over his shoulders, a large cocked hat upon his head, mounted upon an high wooden saddle, and his feet buried in large wooden stirrups, sitting upon the near horse. The better description of carriages consists of coaches and chariots curiously painted, and much resembling ours about two centuries ago; these are drawn by two, four, or six mules, according to the circumstances of the owner; the drivers being arrayed in tawdry and shabby liveries, with hats and stirrups, which, to those accustomed to the splendid decorations of a modern English carriage, beggar all description.

'Whenever I pass through the streets I am constantly reminded of not merely being in a Catholic town, but in one of peculiar bigotry and ignorance. People are seen kneeling and motionless before the numerous shrines which may be said to swarm throughout the whole city. Figures of the Virgin are preserved in glass cases, together with those of Christ upon the cross, and numberless collections of relics. These are hung against the walls of the streets, and are furnished with lamps upon particular occasions, as saints' days, festivals, &c.'

Mr. B. afterward introduces a slight qualification of the charge in the concluding paragraph, by informing us that it is not unusual now to meet with Portuguese who are disposed to turn into ridicule the superstitions of their countrymen. We must be cautious, however, of drawing a general inference from a few cases. The men who were likely to offer themselves to the conversation of a British officer were, in all probability, of the more liberal class; and Mr. B.'s residence in the country was not sufficiently prolonged to enable him to form a correct estimate of so serious a question as the extent of the religious creed of the community. We feel ourselves much more disposed to put confidence in his representations, when he describes (pp. 80, 81.) the cheering and consolatory effect of a grand entertainment given by Lord Wellington in autumn 1810, at the alarming time when Masséna advanced with his numerous army to the neighbourhood of Lisbon. No sooner was it known that the French cannon were almost within hearing, than the terror of the Portuguese and even of the merchants residing in Lisbon became extreme; so that packet-vessels, calculated to accommodate thirty or forty persons, were bespoken for more than two hundred. It happened that at this time an official notice was received from England to invest Marshal Beresford with the Order of the Bath; and Lord Wellington seized this opportunity of giving a public demonstration of his confidence in the army, and in the position which it occupied. He therefore invited all the officers, whose rank gave them any title to that courtesy, to the evening party and ball; leaving only a few on duty in the first line, but with effectual precautions that every one should return to his post in the course of the night. The entertainment, which took place in the splendid palace of Mafra, was attended by a great number of the Portuguese nobility and gentry; and the effect of a *fête* under such circumstances produced so total a revolution in the public feeling, that the majority of the intended voyagers paid the forfeit of half of their passage-money, and remained tranquilly at Lisbon.

Of the *National Manners of the Portuguese*, we have these statements:

> 'The ladies both in person and manners are certainly inferior to our own, though there is nothing peculiarly offensive in their conduct and appearance: a roundish plump face, rather sallow complexion, with more or less colour, and lively hazle eyes, with long black eye-lashes, and dark hair, appear to form the general character of their countenances, some of which are very interesting and pretty. They generally wear black, when dressed, intermixed with a little white; their waists short; and when they walk out, a long laced mantle is thrown over the head, which they hold with one hand under the chin, while the other is constantly employed in carrying a fan. Excepting at evening assemblies, in the theatres, and on their way to mass, the ladies are seldom or never seen in public.—
>
> 'Dancing forms one of the principal amusements in all their parties. Their balls usually commence with country-dances, succeeded by waltzing, which is commonly kept up till the party separates. The Portuguese waltz faster than the Germans, and more in the French style.
>
> 'I have been to some private parties, the society of which gives you a more favourable idea of the Portuguese than you would at first be impressed with. Many of the gentlemen imitate the English costume, throwing off the enormous cocked hat, and dingy brown or black cloak in which the generality envelope themselves.
>
> 'I cannot say that I have met frequently with much learning and information among them, though a few individuals possess considerable intelligence: but much cannot be expected where education is so little attended to.
>
> 'There is somewhat of elegance and taste occasionally displayed in the better kind of houses, but no attention is paid to comfort, and still less to cleanliness in their general domestic arrangements.
>
> 'The men are universally addicted to smoking segars, while the women appear to have an equal predilection for garlic, and the disgusting habit of spitting, often without regard to time or place.'

A bull-fight is also described: but of these scenes we have heard "enough and to spare."

In our review of the second edition of Dr. Halliday's work, (vol. lxxii. p. 144.) we remarked on the miserably backward state in which the Portuguese commissariat and military system in general remained, until the interference of British officers accomplished a salutary revolution. Mr. Broughton bears a distressing testimony concerning the civil administration of the country, and has no hesitation in ascribing it to a single cause: but that cause unfortunately is of most general and pernicious operation, we mean the bigotry and ignorance of the government. His medical report is equally unfavourable.

'In my professional capacity it has fallen to my lot to visit the poorest and most distressed classes; and miserable as the state of this order of society appears to be upon a casual view of it, it is yet nothing when compared with that which is furnished by a more intimate acquaintance with its evils. Often destitute of hospitals, and without the aid of medical men, the unfortunate victims linger in the most loathsome and deplorable state which poverty and disease can inflict, and are consequently doomed to drag out their miserable existence a burthen to their families and to themselves. I found the little assistance I was enabled to afford them was eagerly sought and very gratefully accepted, and as the intelligence of the opportunity of relief spread abroad, the numbers of the afflicted, and the excess to which their various diseases had reached by neglect, astonished me. Whenever I met with medical men I uniformly found their science limited to a degree which almost exceeds belief. Their study is chiefly confined to the perusal of a few old authors, whose practice among us has become obsolete; and they have consequently few conceptions beyond the dogmas of the latter. The surprise they evinced at the surgical apparatus of an English medical officer, and at the commonest operations, proved the lamentable state of the whole profession in Portugal. The people in general, as well as the medical practitioners, are in perpetual terror of infection, for they are wholly ignorant of its nature and the most common ways of preventing it. Even to this day the Portuguese cherish an invincible prejudice against the use of mercury, in cases where we know of no other remedy to check the progress of disease. Their prejudice against vaccination was equally strong, but by the interference of the legislature it has been introduced; and the arrival of vaccine matter from England is occasionally announced in the Gazette, and inoculation performed gratuitously.'

The reader of this book, however, will be frequently at a loss to make up his opinion of the author's judgment with regard to the estimate of national character; since he will meet at one time with observations intitled to great attention, and at another with remarks which indicate unacquaintance with or inattention to points that ought undoubtedly to have been familiar to every intelligent traveller. Nothing can be more appropriate than Mr. B.'s predictions that the Spaniards would soon forget their obligations to their British deliverers; and that in France the national feeling, on the return of the Bourbons, would be by no means marked with so much attachment to that family as many of our sanguine countrymen imagined: but how shall we reconcile these discriminating views with the repetition (pp. 72. 113, 114.) of the usual charges of the barbarity of the French troops to the Portuguese, without attributing them to previous wrongs received from the latter? The Portuguese, he allows, (p. 114.) accounted torture and murder perfectly lawful towards their French prisoners, and practised them in the absence of the British without the smallest scruple. In animadverting, therefore, on the irregularities of the French, the facts ought to be stated in connection with their cause: the regular troops of any country are seldom guilty of unprovoked outrage; and the French, however vain and fickle, are almost always characterized by humanity unless when excited to anger by such treatment as that which has been just mentioned. In a subsequent part, (p. 178.) we find Mr. B. lodged at the small town of Salvatierra, through which Joseph Bonaparte had recently passed after his disaster at Vittoria. Poor Joseph, we now know, was not the person to govern or to oppress mankind; his stay on the occasion in question was very brief; he took only a hasty repast, but accompanied it, adds Mr. B., with great gravity, 'by *reported atrocities* on which I shall not enter.'

Spain. — On passing the frontier-line of the two kingdoms, Mr. B. was forcibly struck with the change both in the aspect of the country and in the appearance of the natives. Roads, houses, clothing, diet, and state of cultivation, are all materially different, and all to the advantage of Spain. This encomium, however, embraces scarcely any objects beyond those which are indispensable to a bare existence; the author having, after longer residence, found the Spaniards just as deficient in point of comfort, cleanliness, and habits of exertion, as they had been described by preceding travellers. Of these facts he affords sufficient proof in his statement of the condition of the Spanish army; which thoroughly corresponds with the delineations of it that have been repeatedly given. Nothing could present a greater contrast to the Spaniards than the healthy, vigorous, and comfortable state of the British troops: the loss experienced in the preceding campaign, from want of tents and from too great exposure to the weather, having induced our government to waive all consideration of expence in providing the troops this year with accommodation in that respect. — As Mr. B. makes it a rule to avoid the discussion of military measures, he cannot be expected to explain the embarrassing question why a General so noted for activity as Lord Wellington did not, in the campaign of 1813, put the main body of his army in motion till after the middle of May. We can account for this delay only by taking it for granted that he was determined to avoid partial fighting, and to push forwards with collected force; a plan which could not be carried into effect without the consumption of an important interval in a variety of subsidiary movements and preparations.

Mr. Broughton thus concludes his description of the celebrated city of Salamanca, in its present dilapidated state:

> 'The present appearance of the town excites many melancholy reflections, when contrasted with the accounts which we have been accustomed to receive of its former magnificence, and high reputation as a seat of learning. Neither Oxford, nor Cambridge, I am convinced, from the appearance of the colleges (the walls of which are still standing) equal in any point of view what this once flourishing town exhibited in better days. Perhaps you will not think me guilty of exaggeration, when I tell you that there are still the remains of nineteen splendid colleges, built of an handsome white stone, most elaborately and classically ornamented, forming once one of the chief repositories of ancient literature, which subsequently enlightened modern Europe.'

From the time of leaving Salamanca, the progress of our army was rapid: the French finding it impracticable to prevent the passage of the Douro or to defend Burgos, and making no attempt at a stand until they reached Vittoria. Our success in the memorable contest at that place would have been more complete in point of prisoners, had not the tempting sight of the enemy's stores, which were abandoned on the field, led our troops to forget for some hours what was due to discipline, and to desist from following up the flying host. Mr. B. notices the subsequent operations, particularly the battles of the Pyrenees, with great brevity, and prefers to enlarge on such topics as the aspect of the country and the character of the people. In adverting to the provincial markets, he observes in general terms that provisions were extremely dear in the towns through which the army passed, but does not enable us to form any estimate of the customary rate at times when the demand is not invigorated by such numerous and potent purchasers. Spain, we believe, is by no means a cheap country; a circumstance which, when we consider its highly favourable soil and climate, can be explained only by the shameful indolence of the inhabitants, and the equally shameful mismanagement of the government: which, if we may credit Laborde, carries its absurdity so far (M. R. vol. lxiii. p. 127.) as to impose a tax on provisions, and even on day-labour. — Of the Spanish character, Mr. B. affords these traits and opinions:

> 'The men are for the most part vulgar, vehement, and noisy, and the women deficient in delicacy and manners. Before a party

has been long assembled, segars are introduced, the smoak of which fills the room and creates an odour, that, as you may easily suppose, is not very agreeable to those unaccustomed to such practices; to which may be added the constant effluvia proceeding alike from both sexes. I have not yet observed, that the Spaniards possess a greater degree of intelligence or information than their despised neighbours the Portuguese, nor could I discover any really good grounds upon which they can rest their boasted superiority.'—

'The time probably will not be long, before it will be fully seen how slight a value Spain will set upon her recent deliverance, and the small advantage she will derive from it. In the mean while I cannot but feel an interest in the cause, from the remembrance of the greatness of the kingdom as it existed in better days; of which, the sudden burst of patriotism, when the insolent pretensions of the enemy were first made known, seemed to indicate a speedy renewal.

'The Portuguese are altogether unanimous in their gratitude for the great services rendered them by the British; but, if the Spaniards possess this feeling at all, they are for the most part backward in acknowledging it; and, with an arrogance and self-sufficiency, peculiar to the nation, attribute much of the merit of every achievement that has been accomplished, during the various campaigns in the Peninsula, to themselves.'—

'Nothing can show the slight advance, that this country has made in the arts of agriculture, in a stronger light, than the nation's still adopting the clumsy and primitive mode of beating out the corn, which we learn from the writings of Moses was in practice among the Jews, and other nations of antiquity, when the arts of husbandry were nearly in their infancy. A circular stage is raised above the level of the ground, supported by a frame of wooden planks, and horses or mules, harnessed to an heavy sledge, are employed to draw it briskly round the ring, the corn being strewed in layers, for the purpose of being beaten out by this species of rude machinery passing over it. Sometimes, a man holding the reins, stands in the sledge to drive it round; and the children are allowed to amuse themselves by riding in it, in order to increase the pressure. When a certain portion of grain is thus forced out, it is passed through different sieves; the whole process is certainly slow and imperfect, and exposed to many inconveniencies, and occasionally to waste.'

The author again falls into a common error when he supposes the Spanish character to have stood much higher in former days, and does not hesitate to follow romance-readers in alluding (p. 147.) to the 'once lofty and dignified character of the Spanish nation.' We were in hopes that travellers of education had by this time begun to recover from this curious mistake, and to set down the Spaniards of the present day as on a par in personal merit with their ancestors, while they must be allowed greatly to exceed them in the important points of population and national resources. An attentive survey of their annals will shew that the boasted kingdom of Philip did not contain half the present numbers of Spain; that the armies, with which he desolated the Netherlands and shook France, would now be called little more than detachments; and that the progress of the Spaniards in civilization, such as it has been, was chiefly made in the last century. We are therefore slow in subscribing to the author's sanguine estimate of the former grandeur of Salamanca, (already quoted,) and even suspect that his account (p. 234.) of Pamplona is tinged with too favourable a colouring. He had, at the time of writing these descriptions, been accustomed to all the narrowness and deformity of Portuguese and Spanish towns in general; and, like other young writers, he is apt, on finding an exception to the common character, to allow himself to give an exaggerated outline to his picture. It would be easy to point out several examples of contradiction in his statements, particularly respecting the national character of the Spaniards: but we shall be satisfied with laying before our readers a short paragraph, which shews how greatly the fair sex had risen in his estimation before he quitted the Peninsula.

> 'I must not, while I condemn the Spaniards, be understood to apply my censure universally. The fairer half of the nation certainly claims exemption; for, with a little polish from more refined education than is at present within their reach, I cannot conceive (from the little observation I have been able to make among the better classes) a more agreeable, fascinating, and beautiful race of females. They appear to me to differ very little from the Portuguese women in any respect, and if a distinction exists, the superiority rests with the former. Their dress is becoming and simple, consisting principally of the black gowns and lace *mantillas* worn by the Portuguese ladies.'

South of France.—Mr. Broughton continued to accompany the army throughout the operations in the spring of 1814, which were terminated by the battle of Toulouse and the abdication of Bonaparte. Our cavalry, (which he attended,) after having remained a short time in quarters, proceeded northwards in the direction of Limoges, Orleans, Mantes, (on the Seine,) Abbeville, and Boulogne, whence they finally took shipping for England in the autumn. This route gives him an opportunity of enlarging at some length on the state of France, and particularly of recording his opinion that the Bourbons were by no means acceptable to a very considerable portion of the nation. His book being published after the successful attempt of Bonaparte from Elba had confirmed such predictions, he takes care to apprize us in his preface that his sentiments had been committed to paper long before the occurrence of the change in question; indeed, the French are seldom in the habit of concealing their political feeling; and a number of those who were most likely to come in contact with a foreigner, particularly at Paris, were attached to the cause of the Revolution. Mr. B. did not, however, remain long enough among them to become aware of the important deductions that should be made from the assertion of a vain and talkative race, or to calculate with confidence what portions of the French people were likely to be active or to remain tranquil on the occurrence of a new crisis. His remarks on this head are accordingly very general; and we dwell with more satisfaction on the passages in which he compares the French and the Spanish character, as he had an opportunity of observing it in their respective countries.

> 'Notwithstanding the depressed condition of the people in the south of France, and their distance from the capital, there is certainly a very striking superiority to be noticed among them, when compared with the nation which I have recently quitted. A better insight into every thing which regards the comforts of life, and a greater degree of hospitality, pretty generally pervade every description of people that I have hitherto been acquainted with in the country. To these advantages they unite a degree of liveliness and suavity of manners, coupled with a neatness in their persons and dress, which, upon the first acquaintance, cannot fail to render them interesting and agreeable to every one; and particularly so to those, who, like myself, have recently left a country of so very opposite a description in all these particulars.—The women, however, have some few customs among them, which, according to our ideas of female delicacy, create no inconsiderable drawback upon their personal attractions. The masculine habit of riding a-stride, which I believe is more or less prevalent throughout France, is very common here, among the generality of people; and, as they have no peculiar dress adapted for the purpose, the ungracefulness of the custom appears still more offensive to the eyes of an Englishman; for when in full gallop, they really reminded me of the female knights errant of Ariosto.—Two predominant foibles are conspicuously common to both sexes—excessive vanity, and a never-ceasing disposition to chatter, accompanied by a corresponding aversion from every species of thinking.'—
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> *Travelling.*—'The chief distinction, observable between travelling in France and the adjacent countries beyond the Pyrenees, consists in the opportunity every where afforded in the former of procuring carriages of all kinds, together with the abundant distribution of hotels, inns, restaurateurs, &c., whereas in Portugal and Spain, the former

former particularly, there being very few roads capable of affording a passage to wheeled-carriages beyond a short distance, the only choice left for the traveller is to adopt the usual practice of those countries, of riding upon mules, which, for numerous and obvious reasons, is subject to a variety of inconveniencies; to this may be added, not only the great distances you may have to travel before any posada or inn presents itself, but also the frequent deficiency of comfortable accommodation at such places, and the scarcity and bad quality of the food. In these essential points, France, as in every other point of civilization, greatly exceeds both her western neighbours.

'And moreover, a traveller in this country is not exposed, as he perpetually is in the others, to plunder, robbery, and assassination; atrocities, which the slow pace of the post mules, and the exposure of the persons of their riders, very greatly contribute to promote.'

This encomium on travelling-accommodations in France should be read with caution, and be considered only as setting them above those of Spain, which is decidedly one of the most uncomfortable countries in Europe. The travelling ardour of Englishmen, we believe, has been materially cooled since their experience of French cabriolets, diligences, and inns; and Mr. B. himself was soon taught the necessity of qualifying his panegyric on the latter.

'Besides the auberges in large towns, there are many "chambres à louer," announced on the outside of large houses, the various inhabitants of which are usually not of the most select description; and, from the construction of the rooms, privacy and comfort are out of the question. I was once quartered on such a place, and on enquiring for my room, was introduced to a spacious dirty garret, furnished with several broken-down bedsteads, chairs, and tables, adorned with old and dirty moth-eaten green tapestry, altogether presenting so woeful an appearance as could scarcely have been paralleled in Grub-street.

'There being no less than four different doors communicating with various lesser rooms and passages, it was late before the numerous lodgers ceased to pass and repass, and when I deemed it prudent, I followed the example of those who occupied the other beds, (among which was an whole family of children in one,) and prepared to stretch myself on my dirty couch. Before, however, I could effect this completely, a party, consisting of an old man and three women, (all intoxicated,) accompanied by two children, burst into the room, apparently arrived from some fair or revel, and seated themselves with perfect sang-froid round a table, to enjoy their supper before they retired to rest. In vain I remonstrated, and insisted upon my right to the privacy of the room, in order to get to bed. "Restez tranquille, Monsieur," was the only answer I could obtain, and it was not without considerable opposition and difficulty, on my part, that I at length persuaded them to retire to their chamber, where they all went to sup and to sleep. Early the next morning I was awakened by my busy fellow-lodgers, and without much stretch of imagination, might easily have conceived myself to be lying in an open street, in the most frequented part of the town, from the multiplicity of people that continually passed and repassed by the foot of my bed, leaving me in as little hopes of avoiding rising, as I had experienced of sleeping, in public. This chamber seemed to be the focus where all the lodgers concentrated. At one end I saw, on looking through my curtain, a party at breakfast, by the side of the fire some children were having their feet washed, and the ladies, 'en papilotte et dishabille,' were preparing for the recreations of a Sunday morning, while a group was in constant motion before me, among which I noticed *filles, garçons, shoe-brushers, pedlars, old-clothesmen,* (one of whom actually enquired of me as I lay in bed, if I had any small-clothes or other garments for sale,) with an host of people of all kinds, making my corner of the room a perfect thoroughfare. You may readily conceive, that my first care, on getting up, was to apply for another billet, which Monsieur Maire, with many condolences for my bad lodging, very readily afforded me.'—

'Toulouse is a very large and populous town, and if the accounts of the inhabitants may be relied on, it is certainly the fourth city in France. The entrance on the western side, across a large and handsome bridge, thrown over the Garonne, is very striking, but I was much disappointed with the rest of the town. The streets are all very narrow, and, as usual, few of them are furnished with paved footways; the houses too, in general, being small, and shabby in their appearance. They have shops, however, in abundance, throughout the town, which, generally speaking, are very excellent, especially those of the booksellers and jewellers.

'After crossing the bridge, to the right and left, a long range of public buildings, consisting of warehouses, &c. on the banks of the river, produces somewhat of the appearance of grandeur; but this I think forms the only fine view in Toulouse; every other part bears a dirty, confined, and rather mean look for a town of such note and importance.'—'The present population of Toulouse is estimated at about fifty thousand, the chief portion of which is engaged in trade.'—'There are abundance of hotels, cafés, &c. many of which are very elegantly fitted up, and in a style greatly superior to those which are to be met with, generally, in London, and perhaps better adapted to the taste and manners of the French.—

'The gay and lively inhabitants of France resort in crowds to these places of refreshment, apparently devoid of care, and more, as it would appear, from the desire of amusement, than the satisfying of their hunger. Of all the confusion of tongues I have ever experienced, a French coffee-house exhibits the most extraordinary display, and certainly since the destruction of the Tower of Babel nothing can have ever been like it in the world. To this eternal jabbering, which is pretty general in these places throughout France, may be added, at Toulouse, a never-ceasing succession of beggars, pedlars, tumblers, conjurors, &c. who are admitted into the cafés, from an importunity requiring no small share of resolution to resist. These gentry carry their impudence to the most extraordinary pitch, infesting your table while at dinner, and forcing their various sorts of merchandize upon you, consisting chiefly of toys, trinkets, laces, &c. and often of articles more exceptionable though not less marketable. A similar species of persecution is practised by the jugglers, who are equally numerous and importunate. Happening to dine at one of these places, upon my first arrival, I was not a little astonished by a female, attended by two little girls, entering the room; and, without ceremony, directly proceeding to unburthen themselves of a considerable portion of their upper vestments, so as to give me some apprehensions for the conclusion of the business, the meaning of which I was totally at a loss to conjecture. I was, however, soon relieved from my alarm, by perceiving the woman, accompanied by the two children, proceed to tumble over several times up and down the whole length of the room, between the tables, walk upon their hands, and perform various other feats of agility, and concluding the whole, as usual, by a demand upon your purse.'—

'The country immediately in the vicinity of Toulouse possesses as little beauty as the town itself, being neither interesting in its general appearance, nor remarkable for fertility and cultivation, while all the villages around are in a state of poverty and partial devastation. The Garonne sweeps round a portion of the town, and in some spots affords pleasing views, but the chief beauties for which its banks are celebrated lie remote from the city. It is a broad, clear, deep, and rapid stream, and is navigable to a considerable distance. A wall encircles the remainder of the town, which is not defended by the river.'—

'Montauban is one of the finest towns I have seen, and certainly forms a very desirable residence. It stands on an elevated position upon the river Tarn, which winds beneath it, through verdant meadows and woods, in a most beautiful manner. The whole country around is extremely fertile, and exhibits rich and extensive scenery. The city itself is somewhat less in size than Toulouse, but far superior in the neatness and beauty of the streets and houses, wearing altogether an appearance of respectability and fashion which does not belong to the latter.'

We would conclude our extracts, if we had any farther space, by some interesting passages relative to the nation or tribe of mountaineers inhabiting the border-country of France and Spain, who are distinguished from the subjects of either by speaking the Basque language. The territory occupied by this peculiar class of people comprizes the portion of Gascony called the *Pays de Labour*, almost the whole of the three provinces of Biscay, and several of Navarre; and the character given of them by Mr. B. is very favourable.—It is, however, more than time to bring this article to a close, and to add only a few remarks on the properties of the work as a literary composition. The author has not the merit of much method in arranging his materials; and his observations are often desultory, a topic being partly discussed in a particular letter, afterward dropped, and taken up in a subsequent letter, to be once more dropped and resumed. He fails in precision, from not adding the day of the month to his letters, and omits to avail himself of several good opportunities of describing military movements at which he was present; such as (p. 160.) the passage of the Douro at Toro, on which he might have enlarged with advantage, without considering himself as pledged to study the principles of more difficult or extensive combinations. His style is also open to objection, being almost always diffuse and not unfrequently incorrect; while the typical department affords equal room for animadversion; Loire being put (p. 343.) for Loiret; Gasconne repeatedly for Gascon; the word 'Pyrenees' printed without a capital letter; and the sense in some passages, (as pp. 160. 385.) whether from bad composition or bad printing, being almost unintelligible. A map of the march of the brigade, from Lisbon to Boulogne, is prefixed, and proves very convenient for reference: but we look in vain for a table of contents or an index. As an author, therefore, the praise of Mr. B. must be confined, in a great measure, to his delineation of local scenery and national manners. He had certainly the opportunity of seeing much of the cities and habits of men; and he has presented to us a volume that must be considered as very entertaining, though less instructive and less intitled to a character of permanency than if it had been prepared for the eye of the public with adequate care.

ART. VI. *An Introduction to Geology*, illustrative of the general Structure of the Earth; comprizing the Elements of the Science, and an Outline of the Geology and Mineral Geography of England. By Robert Bakewell. The Second Edition, considerably enlarged.* 8vo. pp. 492. 18s. Boards. Harding.

If we take a view of the relation which Geology has borne to the other departments of natural knowlege, with reference to the order in which they have successively engaged the notice either of the public at large or of scientific individuals, it will appear, as a matter of fact, that this was one of the last which obtained attention; notwithstanding its obvious importance to the welfare of society, and the direct interest which mankind have always felt in exploring the bowels of the earth for the sake of its concealed treasures. The structure of the globe, and the mode of its formation, were not contemplated in a philosophical manner until about half a century ago, when the leading efforts at consistent hypothesis were made by the Germans. One of the first advances that was attempted was the division of rocks into primary and secondary: the former being so named on account of their containing no trace of animal or vegetable remains, and being therefore supposed to have received their present form previously to the existence of the earth as a habitable world; while the latter, exhibiting many specimens of these bodies, must necessarily have been posterior to that event.

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* By some accident, we overlooked the first edition of this 'Introduction:' but we believe that we have no reason to regret the omission, since we have in consequence had the opportunity of perusing a more interesting work, and of announcing it to our readers in an improved form.

Mr. Bakewell informs us that Mitchell and Whitehurst were the first persons in this country who had any clear ideas on this subject; and the publication of the latter especially is characterized as being highly valuable, and as professing to deduce the general principles of geology from actual observation: but its author is said to have fallen into the error of drawing comprehensive conclusions from local and limited data, and forming an universal theory from a partial collection of facts. For some years after the death of those gentlemen, the science of geology seems to have attracted little notice in this country; though, during the same period, it had many zealous cultivators on the Continent, particularly in Germany, where the labours of Werner and his pupils produced a very prevalent spirit of research on all topics connected with this branch of philosophy: a spirit which was not a little fostered by the warm and even acrimonious controversy that was excited by their peculiar hopothetical opinions. A doctrine exactly the reverse of that of Werner had been broached in this country by Hutton, but was rather thrown out as a plausible conjecture than advanced as a matured theory. Yet it found defenders not less zealous and more eloquent than their rivals; and it is not to be questioned that the widely diffused taste for geological knowlege, which now prevails in this island, originated in the ardent discussions that ensued, although it has given rise to a spirit of philosophical investigation that has seldom been exceeded in dilgence and activity.

Still, however, the want of an elementary treatise was much felt and acknowleged; for we agree with Mr. Bakewell, that neither the 'technical obscurity' of the geognosy of Jameson nor the 'polemical controversies' of De Luc can be well adapted for the use of beginners, who wish to become acquainted with the outlines of the science and its general principles, before they enter on the harsh and discordant phraseology of the German miners or the intricacies of abstract speculations. Perhaps, indeed, we have no example of any department of natural knowlege, in which so much curious and interesting matter has been placed before the public in so repulsive a form as that which has hitherto received the name of geology. We have no hesitation in saying, therefore, that a fair opening was left for a work like that of Mr. Bakewell, even should it appear that he has not taken every advantage of the opportunity. His pretensions are certainly considerable; since he professes to have made many personal observations in different districts of the country, — to have discarded much of the obscure phraseology of his predecessors, substituting in its room a more simple and intelligible nomenclature, — and, above all, to have proposed a new hypothesis respecting the origin and formation of various strata, which seemed not to be easily reconciled to any of the former opinions. We must now attempt to shew in what degree these promises have been realized.

Chapter I. is entirely introductory, consisting of the annunciation of those elementary principles which are afterward more fully explained and developed; and commencing with general observations on the shape and density of the earth, and other points connected with its present physical constitution, from which we may form some probable conjecture concerning its antient state. The first great conclusion to which we are led is, that the present continents were once entirely covered with water; a fact which seems to be proved by the fossil remains of animals imbedded in solid rocks, many of them belonging to genera and species now no longer in existence: thus pointing out the great revolutions which the globe must have experienced in former ages. We are hence necessarily conducted to one of two suppositions; either that the ocean has retired, and sunken far below its original level, or that some mechanical power, acting from beneath, has lifted up parts of the surface of the earth, so as to form islands and continents, with all their present inequalities of mountains and valleys. These remains of organized bodies also furnish the proof of another fact not less interesting; viz. that every distinct stratum, in which they are deposited, must at some period have been the uppermost; while the numerous strata, which we now perceive lying one over another, must have been deposited in succession, and consequently present us with a kind of historical record of the successive changes which the earth has experienced, with respect both to the nature of its composition and to its inhabitants. To investigate the nature of these changes, and to form a probable hypothesis to account for their occurrence, are the grand business of the geologist, which it is the object of the following chapters to explain and illustrate.

In the second chapter, on the Structure and Composition of Rocks, we have an account of the terms employed to designate their several varieties, and the different forms which they exhibit in consequence of their composition, their mechanical structure, their physical properties of all kinds, and their relation to each other. These are defined with sufficient clearness and perspicuity, so as to afford every reasonable facility to the student; and the same remark applies to the account of the substances of which rocks are composed: but we shall give our readers some specimens of this part, in order that they may judge of the propriety of our commendation. Silex and clay are thus defined or described:

> ' Silex, or the earth of flints, is the most abundant, particularly in the primary mountains. It derives it name from the Latin word for flint, which is almost entirely composed of this earth: it also exists nearly pure in rock crystal, and the mineral called quartz. Stones or rocks of which silex forms the predominant part are extremely hard, and strike fire with steel: such rocks are denominated siliceous.
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> ' *Clay*, or *Alumine*, — Latin, *argilla*, — Fr. *argille*, — is a substance which in a mixed state is well known; but pure unmixed clay is one of the rarest substances in the mineral kingdom. This earth is soft, smooth, and unctuous to the touch; it strongly absorbs water. Where it exists in stones in the proportion of thirty per cent. it communicates in some degree these properties: such rocks are called argillaceous; they generally contain a notable portion of iron, which appears to have a greater affinity for this earth than for any other.'

Of the simple minerals, which form a large portion of the rocks that exist in the greatest abundance, we shall select the description of Felspar:

> ' Felspar or feld-spar (a name received from the Germans) is a constituent part of numerous rocks. It is hard in a somewhat less degree than quartz, and is more easily broken. It is laminar, or composed of thin laminæ or plates, by which it may be generally distinguished from quartz. The crystals are most commonly four-sided or six-sided prisms, whose length is greater than the breadth. It has a shining lustre. The colours are white, gray, milk white, yellowish, or reddish white, sometimes inclining to green. The red passes through various shades, from a pale to a deep red. Crystallized felspar is translucent. It may be melted

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without the admixture of alkalies, and forms a glass more or less transparent, which quality it derives from the lime or alkali that compose part of its constituent ingredients; but different specimens of this mineral vary according to the analyses of the same chemist.

‘ Silex	63 —	74
Alumine	17 —	14
Potash	13 —	
Lime	3 —	6
Oxyd of iron	1 —	
Loss	3 —	6

Others give the proportion of silex 46, alumine 24, lime 6.

‘ The existence of potash or the vegetable alkali, in felspar, is a fact deserving particular attention: it may be owing to this circumstance that felspar is so frequently observed in a soft or decomposing state, although its hardness is little inferior to that of quartz when undecayed. Those felspars which are durable are probably free from potash. Felspar is sometimes uncrystallized and compact, in which state it is classed by the French mineralogists with petrosilex or hornstone. Compact felspar however differs from hornstone, the latter being infusible without the addition of alkalies.’

After these two chapters, which may be regarded as preliminary, we enter on what may more properly be considered as the scientific part; when, in the third chapter, we come to the position and arrangement of rocks and strata, in which many curious and important subjects are discussed. The manner in which they are situated with respect to each other is first described, and the terms are defined which we employ to express this relation. The general doctrine is well illustrated by a supposed section of a part of our island, extending from Sheffield to the north of Derbyshire, where we observe the mode in which the different kinds of rocks lie on each other, generally in parallel beds, but with a certain inclination to the horizon; so that, as we advance along the country from E. to W., the successive strata rise up to the surface. This chapter contains also some remarks on the mode in which valleys have been excavated, and beds of gravel formed and deposited in certain situations; and on the means by which large masses of the primitive rocks, especially of granite, have been transported to a great distance from their original situations. As to this last, it has been long regarded as a point of very difficult solution; and we fear that the opinion which the present author has embraced, that they have been enveloped in fields of ice, and have thus been raised up and floated on the surface of the ocean from one part of the globe to another, will scarcely be deemed very satisfactory, although it is an opinion that is sanctioned by great authority.

We now come to the description of the different classes of rocks: but, before we are introduced to the individual species, we have some general remarks on their classification, and the number of species that are to be included in each division. With respect to the primary rocks, Werner is supposed to have made them too numerous; because, it is alleged, he took his view of the subject exclusively from facts that occur in Saxony, and has regarded some rocks which he found there as universal, while in fact they are confined to that district. Mr. B.'s classification differs, however, in a more essential particular; instead of the third class, the flœtz rocks of Jameson and others, he introduces two classes, the basaltic rocks, and the upper secondary stratified rocks. His classes therefore are six; the primary, the secondary metalliferous rocks, the two mentioned above, the alluvial, and the volcanic. As the third class, those which are designated 'superincumbent rocks of basaltic conformation,' constitutes the most striking feature of the author's system, we shall more particularly attend to the account which he gives of it. The principal rocks in this division are Trap, Porphyry, and Basalt; distinguished by their structure and position, and by certain geological characters which seem to indicate that their origin, or the immediate cause of their formation, was peculiar to themselves.

Sienite is placed by Mr. Bakewell among his rocks of basaltic formation, because it is sometimes found in an unconformable overlying position, to use the German phraseology; while the transitions, by which granite passes into sienite, and this into porphyry, trap, and basalt, are gradual and almost imperceptible. This change is principally accomplished by the intervention of hornblende, which is said to form the connecting link between granitic rocks and those of probable volcanic origin. When hornblende enters as a component part into rocks, in such a proportion as to impress on them a peculiar character, they are denominated Trap; a term which may be employed as generic, to designate the several species of green-stone, basalt, whin-stone, &c. All the rocks of this class are disposed to exhibit a columnar structure, and to arrange themselves in polygonal shapes; which, while they produce some of the most remarkable natural phænomena, necessarily induce us to speculate on the mode of their original formation. The ingenious experiments of the late Mr. G. Watt, directed to this point, and which throw considerable light on the investigation, are well known to have consisted in fusing a large mass of trap, and permitting it to remain in the furnace for several days after the fire was extinguished,

tinguished, in order that it might cool gradually, and without the access of any external agent which could interfere with the result. The fusion reduced it to the vitreous state; and this, as it cooled, was converted into a substance of a stony consistence, in which a number of globules were formed, that enlarged in size until they came in contact and compressed each other, so as finally to be shaped into polygonal prisms. These experiments, and those of Sir James Hall on the effect of heating stony substances, while subjected to great pressure, are conceived to be strongly in favour of the opinion 'that basaltic rocks have been formed by subterranean or submarine fires.' Mr. B. is led by this subject to some observations on Werner and his theory of geology; and, while he admits the merits of that German philosopher as an eminent mineralogist, who 'by persevering industry has collected more facts in this department of science than any predecessors,' he adds;

> 'It is much to be regretted that he has not extended his observations to districts which are the seat of active volcanoes. Having formed his system in countries remote from their immediate operation, he seems desirous of excluding them from nature, and is obliged to invent the most fanciful contrivances to supersede the agency of subterranean fire.'

The exposition which is given of the Wernerian hypothesis, and the objections that are urged against some parts of it, — especially against the supposition of the alternate subsidence and rising of the ocean, which is imagined for the purpose of accounting for the formation of the class of rocks denominated by the author basaltic, — are well stated. We agree with him in the opinion that it is not tenable in all its parts; and we are farther disposed to think that the appearances, which these rocks exhibit, are better explained by having recourse to the agency of fire: but we think it is going much too far to assert that 'it is scarcely possible to invent a system more repugnant to existing facts;' or that 'nothing but the obscure language, in which this doctrine has been advanced, has prevented its absurdity from being instantly perceived and acknowledged.' On the contrary, we must regard Werner as one of the most fortunate adventurers in the formation of scientific hypotheses: if not entirely successful, he was at least much more so than any of his predecessors or contemporaries; and, although his theory may not be equally judicious in all its parts, it will probably always serve as a basis on which later improvements may be founded.—The observations of Humboldt in S. America and of Sir G. Mackenzie in Iceland are then brought forwards by Mr. Bakewell, who says:

'They are, I think, conclusive respecting the igneous origin of basaltic rocks, if any thing were wanting in the chain of evidence on this subject. Rocks of trap and basalt, both in solid beds and also arranged in columns like those of Staffa, were observed by Sir G. Mackenzie on the coast of Iceland, and also in the interior, in which the lower parts of the beds and columns contained scoriæ and slags, and empty cavities. A successive range of beds of basalt was also observed alternating with beds of tufa, the lower parts of which presented the same appearance of the action of fire.'

The three next chapters treat on secondary strata. They contain an account of the succession of organic remains, as they mark the changes which have taken place on the surface of the globe; of the deposits of rock-salt, particularly those at Cardona in Spain and in Cheshire, with the opinions that have been entertained about their formation; of the beds of coal which are found in various parts of the earth, their different species, the manner of their position, the mode of working them, and observations on their origin; of the ironstone which frequently accompanies the coal, with some remarks of an economical nature on the establishment of iron-works; of the aluminous schistus, which is occasionally found intermixed with the coal-strata; of the masses of lime, magnesia, and gypsum, with the bones and shells which are often dispersed through them, and other collateral topics. These chapters include much amusing matter, and exhibit an interesting view of the principal facts and opinions connected with the subject of them; while they serve to introduce the author's speculations respecting the origin of secondary rocks. The principal points which he is anxious to establish are that these secondary strata are local formations; that some of the upper strata were formed in detached lakes; and that all stratified rocks, which lie above the red sand-stone, 'are local formations, which had their origin in detached hollows or seas of great extent, and are limited to certain portions of the globe.' This opinion he supports by numerous arguments, some taken from the observations of travellers, and others from the intrinsic plausibility of the hypothesis, or the greater facility with which it is supposed to explain existing facts: but we have neither space nor time to enter into the development of the hypothesis, or into the detail which the author gives respecting the operation of volcanoes; which, according to his doctrine, are such important geological agents, and have contributed so greatly to reduce the exterior of the globe into its present form. We must also pass over the remaining chapters, which treat of the Geology of England, and contain a general view of the great characteristic features of the southern part of our island.

We shall take our leave of Mr. Bakewell by commending his performance, as possessing many qualities essential to an elementary work, and as on the whole well adapted to the object for which it was designed.

Art. VII. *An Essay on the Existence of a Supreme Creator, possessed of infinite Power, Wisdom, and Goodness;* containing also the Refutation from Reason and Revelation, of the Objections urged against his Wisdom and Goodness; and deducing, from the whole Subject, the most important practical Inferences. By William Laurence Brown, D.D., Principal of Marischal-College and University of Aberdeen, &c. &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Hamilton. 1816.

Art. VIII. *A Treatise on the Records of the Creation, and on the Moral Attributes of the Creator;* with particular Reference to the Jewish History, and to the Consistency of the Principle of Population with the Wisdom and Goodness of the Deity. By John Bird Sumner, M.A. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Hatchard. 1816.

Prize-Essays form a much smaller part of English literature than of that of our continental neighbours. How it has happened that the activity of our literary artizans has not been stimulated by the same hopes of honour and emolument which have called forth many valuable books in other countries, and which among ourselves are applied to the encouragement of excellence in various inferior departments, we shall not now stay to inquire: but the fact is certain, and the difference is deserving of remark. Perhaps the want of such encouragements has rarely been the cause of with-holding profound and comprehensive works from the world: but it undoubtedly has deprived us of many convenient collections of scattered facts, requiring just that degree of labour for their assemblage to which a gold or silver medal is an adequate stimulus; and of many elucidations of obscure minutiæ in history or literature, which moderate abilities concentrated on one object are capable of furnishing. Those who cannot aspire to plan or erect the edifice of truth may intitle themselves to the thanks of the master-mind for which this honour is reserved, by having squared and polished the stones or tempered the cement. It is to the production of such labours as these that the factitious motives of honorary or pecuniary prizes are adapted: original genius or profound thought will pursue its own course without them: but they may excite diligence which would otherwise have slumbered, and may direct it into the path in which it will be most usefully exerted.

On this account, we think that the good intentions of the founder of the prize which has produced the two publications now before us are more conspicuous than his judgment. The evidences of natural and revealed religion form a subject on which so many minds of the first order have been employed, that an original treatise on it, if it were possible, was not likely to be created by the sudden operation of a prize; and it was scarcely worth while to offer so munificent a reward for the mere reproduction of statements, or arguments, which might be found in a multitude of existing works. Both the essays, moreover, confirm our opinion of the injudicious nature of the object which Mr. Burnett proposed to his candidates. Dr. Brown, who has conformed himself accurately to the terms of the question, and therefore certainly merited the preference which the judges awarded to him, necessarily goes over ground already trodden by a host of writers: while Mr. Sumner, who has much more originality, can scarcely be said to have written on the topic which the founder of the prize prescribed.

To Dr. Brown's essay, a biographical memoir of Mr. Burnett is prefixed. He was a native of Aberdeen, and for many years engaged in commerce there, with the highest character for fairness and integrity: one singular instance of which is mentioned by Dr. Brown; viz. his practice of returning to those with whom he had made bargains any profit which the transaction had produced him beyond a fair average; and in this way, we are told, he renounced many thousand pounds in the course of his life to which he was legally intitled. He and his brother also undertook the payment of the debts of their father, who had died insolvent, and expended for this purpose seven or eight thousand pounds; a sum which in Scotland, and in the middle of the last century, was far more considerable than it may appear in these days of depreciated currency and gigantic speculation. Notwithstanding these unpromising practices, Mr. B. accumulated a large fortune; which at his death he bequeathed for various public purposes, and among the rest for the foundation of the prize which has excited the two essays before us. In devoting a part of his property for this object, he seems to have been influenced by the recollection of some sceptical doubts which had harassed his own mind in early days; and though he appears to have surmounted these difficulties, and to have become a firm believer in Revelation, we think that we perceive traces of his having continued through life to entertain heretical suspicions on some doctrinal points. The Principal of Marischal-College speaks on this subject with that mystery which becomes a biographer when treating of his hero's frailties, and a friend of orthodoxy who is unwilling to give heretics the advantage of knowing on what particular topics they have the sanction of Mr. Burnett's example for their doubts: but the reader may form his own conclusion when he learns that Mr. B. withdrew from the public worship of the Episcopal church, because he thought that his attendance implied an approbation of every tenet which its standards teach. Dr. Brown observes on this point; 'Perhaps *pure primitive vital* Christianity is to be found only in the sacred Scriptures, and no small degree of purification must probably take place before its genuine form with all its celestial features can be restored to the earth.' P. xiii. If we were surprized to perceive from this passage that Dr. B. does not regard the creed of any existing church, not even that of which he himself is an ornament, as containing pure and vital Christianity, we were not less amazed that he should immediately afterward attribute Mr. Burnett's secession to a want of discrimination between the essentials and the non-essentials of religion. From the two passages taken together, are we to conclude that, in the writer's opinion, it is not essential to Christianity that it should be pure, primitive, and vital? There appears to be as little reason for the censure which he passes (p. xix.) on Mr. Howard; who, being a strict predestinarian, determined to traverse France, though he knew that the French government had threatened him with the Bastille if he ever set foot in that country again, but did not chuse to expose his servant to the same risk, and sent him round to Nice, as if his fate and that of his master were not equally predestined. We presume that Mr. Howard's conduct did not arise from any doubt of this fact, but from his feeling that, though he could resign himself to any event which might befall him, from a conviction of its being appointed by Providence, his servant was not armed with the same philosophy nor called by the same imperative duty.

Mr. Burnett died in the year 1784; and, agreeably to his will, the income of a small part of his property was allowed to accumulate for twenty-five years, till it amounted to 1600l.; three-fourths of which were assigned to the first in merit and one-fourth to the second of the essays on the subject which he had prescribed; and, if we understand Dr. Brown correctly, the income of the same property is now to accumulate for forty years, at the end of which the produce is to be divided in the same proportion between two other prize-essays on the same question. The testator had positively forbidden that his name should be mentioned: but, as it was found impossible to fulfill his injunctions respecting the distribution of his property without letting the secret escape, it was wisely (we think) determined that an authentic memoir of him should precede Dr. Brown's essay. The prizes were announced in the year 1807, and the time for receiving essays closed on January 1. 1814. About fifty were sent; and the judges, Dr. Gerard, Dr. Hamilton, and Dr. Glennie *unanimously* awarded the first prize to Dr. Brown and the second to Mr. Sumner. The sum of 400l., which fell to the last-mentioned gentleman, was burdened with the hard condition of printing, binding, or purchasing, three hundred copies of each of the successful treatises: but, to the honour of Dr. Brown, he devised a plan to exonerate Mr. Sumner from this obligation, the fulfilment of which would have swallowed up nearly the whole of his prize. He also suggested the propriety of joining one judge from England to two from Scotland, instead of their being all chosen from the University of Aberdeen. We do not undertake to question the actual adjudication: but we would submit to the judges of the year 1854 the expediency of associating some member of an English University with themselves, in order to remove every suspicion from the minds of the southern candidates.

The first book of Dr. Brown's treatise, in conformity with the plan prescribed by Mr. Burnett that the evidence of Reason should be produced before that of Revelation, is occupied with the natural arguments for the being of a God, and the first two chapters with the metaphysical arguments. The remark which has been petulantly made on metaphysics in general might, we think, be applied with great truth to this branch of them, that after every chapter the reader might write *Non liquet*. We confess that, in perusing even the most celebrated of those works which take the "high priori road" of reasoning on this subject, we have ever felt a diminution rather than an increase of that belief, the grounds of which are furnished in such overflowing abundance by the skill and contrivance which the works of nature display. It was a natural wish on the part of the eminent and pious authors of the treatises to which we allude, to place the most sublime truth that the human understanding can embrace on the basis of the most perfect evidence that it can conceive: yet, had their demonstrations been as rigid and complete as they appear to us to be unsatisfactory, they would have produced scarcely a perceptible influence on the general belief, that recognizes a Deity in the adaptation of the universe to a purpose which intelligence alone could entertain, and not in the subtle relations of our own ideas. Dr.

Brown exhibits the arguments, usually urged on this head, in as popular and intelligible a form as they are perhaps capable of assuming: but, we think, without removing any of those difficulties which other investigators have left. One of the greatest of these is to reconcile the supposition of the uncaused existence of the Deity with the axiom that every effect must have a cause. The answers usually given resolve themselves into some arbitrary definition of the word *effect*, or some other advantage taken of the ambiguity of language; and, though Dr. Brown avoids the first of these errors, yet, if we mistake not, his argument will be found to rest on a verbal fallacy:

> 'In fact, *all existence* must have some *cause*. This cause must be found either *without*, or *within*, the existing substance. If this cause is *external*, or, in other words, if *existence* has been *caused* at all, it is referrible to what, in the last chapter, I have denominated, and explained to be, *contingent*. If existence is ultimate, and referrible to no other *cause*, and the *substance*, or *being*, to which such existence belongs, possesses, *in himself*, the ground of his *being*, he is *necessary*, and *self-existent*; or, in other words, we have arrived at that first principle of existence, in which the mind acquiesces, and beyond which it neither can, nor seeks to go. For every thing that exists, then, there must be some ground or reason why it does *exist*, rather *than not*; either the *necessity of its own nature*, or its production by some external *Cause*.'

What idea can be attached to such a phrase as a thing 'being made to exist *by a necessity of its own nature?*' We can give no philosophical sense to the words, but that self-existence implies necessary existence, as an ascent implies a descent, and two and two imply four; which explains why, *assuming* the one to exist, the other cannot be excluded, but gives no explanation of the actual existence of either. There is indeed a popular sense in which necessity is introduced as a cause; as when we say that the necessity of reform produces reform itself: but this is a mere abbreviation of language, to express a variety of circumstances actually existing, and operating to produce reform, such as popular discontent, intolerable weight of burdens, want of confidence in public men, &c.: but in this sense it cannot be applied to the case of which Dr. Brown is treating. If this necessity of his own nature, which is the cause of the existence of the Deity, means some circumstances in that nature itself, they are part of the effect for which we are to account; — if it means something external to it, then we destroy the attribute of self-existence, which excludes the idea of external causation. We apprehend no injury to the practical influence of religion from an honest confession of this difficulty, and of some others inherent in these metaphysical arguments: one glance at the structure of the human eye is sufficient to dissipate every doubt which the inability to solve them may have raised.

Chapter IV. brings us to a more satisfactory branch of the inquiry, the proofs of the being of God from the manifestation of design through the whole of external nature; and hence we extract this pleasing passage:

'Survey this beautiful and magnificent system, this various and immense world, contemplate the azure vault of heaven, and its resplendent, and, to appearance, numberless orbs, rolling with the most regular, yet diversified motions; behold the sun appointed *to rule the day*, and *the moon and the stars, the night!* The different parts of the planetary system are placed at such convenient distances from the great fountain of vital warmth, and of exhilarating light, as to be destroyed neither by heat, nor by cold; neither to be overwhelmed by effulgence, nor to be involved in darkness. Our earth is encompassed with an atmosphere so wonderfully contrived, as, at once, to support clouds for fertilizing rains, to afford winds for refreshment, the expulsion of noxious vapours, and navigation; to furnish vital breath to animals, to convey sound, and to transmit the rays of light. Seas and oceans, supplying vapours for the humid stores of the clouds, and for the sources of rivers, expand their liquid surface to facilitate the intercourse of men, and teem with inhabitants, subservient to their nourishment, or their pleasure. The climates of the earth, though agreeably diversified, are nevertheless respectively provided with just proportions of day, and night; of summer, and winter; and the other changes of season. The face of the globe is exquisitely adorned with the various and inimitable beauties of flowers, and plants, and trees, and with that verdant attire, which is, in spring, so peculiarly cheering to the human heart. Even these beauties acquire fresh lustre from the diversity of the situations in which they are exhibited, from the contrast of hill, and valley, lawn, and forest, and all that variety of prospect which so often arrests the eye, and exalts the soul.

'These elements of earth, and air, and water, abound with animals, as different in species, as they are infinite in multiplication, all employed in the pursuit and enjoyment of pleasures adapted to their respective natures and circumstances; and, though the individuals are continually perishing, succession is constantly maintained, and the species remain, on the whole, entire, and undiminished.'

Chapter V. is devoted to the proof of the existence of God from the constitution and faculties of the human mind. Although the arguments drawn from this source are less powerfully convincing than those which are furnished by the mechanical contrivances of our bodily frame, owing to the obscurity in which the principle of thought, its seat, and its operations, are involved, yet many striking proofs both of the benevolence and the wisdom of God may be derived from the laws of our intellectual nature. Dr. Brown has but imperfectly executed this part of his work. A better system of metaphysics, than that which he has adopted, might have enabled him to point out to his readers the simplicity of means effecting a multitude of purposes, which is the stamp of Divine wisdom in the world of mind not less than of matter; — to have shewn them how the single capacity of receiving pleasure and pain, combined with the intellectual power of association, gives birth to all that variety of passion and affection which diversifies human character; —by what progression ideas advance from being the mere reproduction of single sensations, to that state of abstraction and complexity which they finally attain; — and by what process of refinement the gross elements of selfishness, in which our affections begin, are made to assume a form in which they can no more be recognized, except by the analysis of the philosopher, than charcoal in the diamond into which it has been crystallized. These views of the intellectual and moral constitution of man might, we think, have furnished Dr. Brown with arguments of the wisdom of the Deity, that would have been both more copious and more convincing than any which he has produced. His account of the moral sense is very unsatisfactory:

> 'By *conscience*, or a *moral sense*, I understand that internal perception which we have of *right* and *wrong*, of *moral good* and *evil*, of *virtue* and *vice*, antecedently to any reasoning concerning the more remote consequences of *habits* and *actions*, either to individuals, or to society. This internal sense furnishes principles for judging of *moral subjects*, as *intellect* affords principles for deciding on *truth* and *error*. The exercise of the *moral faculty*, however, it is to be remarked, is always accompanied by certain feelings either of *complacence*, or *disgust*. It is as evident, to our minds, that *every one is bound to speak, and act, conformably to truth*; that *a judge should decide impartially*; that *justice, compassion, kindness, temperance, are obligatory on a rational being*; that *an intelligent and moral creature should honour and obey its all-wise and benevolent Creator* — as it is, that *a whole is greater than any of its parts*; and we can no more withhold our disapprobation and censure from *impiety, falsehood, injustice, fraud, debauchery, treachery, cruelty*, &c. than we can refuse to reject a proposition manifestly absurd.
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> 'Hence arise the very different sentiments which men, in all ages, have entertained concerning the opposite characters of *virtue*, and *vice*; their veneration for the *former*, and their reprobation of the *latter*. They have always agreed in certain general notions of these qualities, although they have occasionally differed very widely, in regard to the application of them to particular actions, and cases. But, this difference is to be ascribed to the exercise of the *judicative*, not of the *moral* faculty; and to the former's classification

sification of actions, or opinions, under the different categories of *vice*, or *virtue*.'

All that is stated in the first paragraph of this extract amounts to no more than that men employ terms in the sense which they have affixed to them, and admit those actions to be meritorious to which they apply names including the idea of merit. No person who understands the English language attempts to justify murder, which he knows to mean an *unjustifiable homicide;* though many not only justify but applaud suicide, tyrannicide, and duelling. Dr. Brown explains these varieties, which are so inconsistent with the idea of an implanted moral sense, by saying that they result from the judicative and not from the moral faculty. Admitting this to be the case, to what is the jurisdiction of this moral sense reduced, which in respect to every individual action is subordinate to the decisions of the judgment?—but what exercise of the judicative faculty do we perceive in the shrinking horror with which a well educated child hears the name of the Deity blasphemed, and in the indifference manifested towards the same profanation by another who has not been taught to reverence him? Is it necessary that they should have examined the importance of a habit of piety to the happiness of human life, and of a habit of speaking reverently of God to the cultivation of piety, in order to determine whether the act in question 'belongs to the category of virtue or vice?' We doubt whether the philosopher, who has meditated most profoundly on these tendencies, feels his moral sense remonstrate with half that abhorrence which is produced in the child, without any reasoning, by the recurrence of those painful emotions which parental authority has made him associate with profaneness. This association may be effected in a variety of ways; and in different minds it may connect opposite acts with similar feelings,—approbation with that which is pernicious and disapprobation with that which is useful to mankind:—but in all cases it is the union of the feeling with the idea of the act that constitutes to the individual his *moral sense.* From the manner in which Dr. Brown speaks through this chapter, and on other occasions on which analogous questions in metaphysics come before him, we perceive a proof of the slowness with which the Hartleyan philosophy makes its way in the Universities of the North. We are aware that some peculiar circumstances have opposed its reception. The hasty ebullition of Dr. Priestley's anger and contempt, in his attack on Reid, Beattie, and Oswald, was certainly unjustifiable; and he had no right to complain, on the ground of the *lex talionis*, that Dr. Reid vouchsafed him no other answer than that of quoting extracts from his book in his public lectures, subjoining, "You see, gentlemen, Dr. Priestley has not given himself the trouble to understand me." This consideration, however, will not justify that protracted resentment which evidently fills the mind of the heir of Dr. Reid's philosophy and the champion of his fame. How unlike the usually mild and benignant spirit of Mr. Stewart's criticism, is that determined hostility which he instantly assumes whenever Priestley or Hartley crosses his path! He appears to us scarcely ever to speak with asperity, or to judge uncandidly, except when he has occasion to mention one of these authors. According to him, the alleged discoveries of Hartley consist in nothing else than in giving a new and very extended application to the term *Association*, and thus introducing confusion into metaphysical nomenclature, instead of enlarging our knowlege of the laws of mind. (Essays, Prelim. Diss.) If any of our readers have been disposed, on Mr. Stewart's authority, to believe this character of Hartley's writings to be just, we would request them to compare Dr. Brown's observations on the moral sense with the writings of Hartley on the same subject, and judge for themselves. On another occasion, (Life of Reid,) Mr. Stewart gives it as his opinion that the reveries of Hartley have only been recalled for a while from oblivion by the brilliant chemical discoveries of Priestley. If we might venture to oppose a prediction to an opinion proceeding from such authority, we should say that the Hartleyan philosophy waits only for an expounder of taste and eloquence equal to his own, to obtain that currency which it deserves by its simplicity, and by its direct bearing on the great problems of self-discipline and moral and intellectual education. The hostility manifested by Mr. Stewart to the Hartleyan doctrine of association is the more remarkable, as he himself bestows high praise on Mr. Alison's Essay on Taste, which only takes up Hartley's principle and applies it to the explanation of the emotions of taste; shewing that what is commonly referred to instinctive feelings and intuitive judgments results from casual associations of pleasure and pain.

The IId Book, (of which nine chapters occur in Vol. i. and three in Vol. ii.) treats of the moral attributes of the Deity, and of the answers which the light of nature offers to the objections against them. Here, in course, the great question of the origin of evil meets him. We extract, as a specimen of this part of the performance, the passage from the eighth chapter in which the author argues convincingly that the power of abusing his natural endowments is essential to the existence of virtue in man, as implying the voluntary direction of them to their proper end:

> 'What can be more consonant to Supreme Perfection, than to exhibit its own image in its creatures? What renders the Deity supremely *great*, *good*, *wise*, and *happy*, but his employing his infinite *power*, according to the *counsels* of his infinite *wisdom*, and *goodness*; but, his acting without the possibility of error, and with the most perfect *liberty*?
>
> 'How could these perfections be displayed, how could their images be manifested, unless by the communication of intellectual and active powers? In consequence of this communication, while the Deity possesses boundless perfection, and felicity, his moral and intellectual creation enjoys the emanations of his communicable attributes, and is capable of contemplating, adoring, worshipping, imitating the great fountain of all excellence. Whatever is fair, exalted, and happy, consists in the exercise of mental powers, in the right discrimination of objects adapted to afford pleasure, or pain, in freedom, and virtue. Let us endeavour to form a representation of perfect happiness; we shall find that it necessarily includes *intelligence* and *liberty*. Without these, nothing remains, but *inert*, *passive matter*, or *blind instinct* which, though sufficient for the ends of merely animal nature, excludes the exquisite joys arising from more exalted faculties, liable, however, to depravation. Without these nobler powers, there could be no contemplation, love, and imitation of God; no investigation of his works, no admiration of their evident beauty, no discovery of their more recondite structure, no acquiescence in his dispensations, and no confidence in his protection. There could exist none of the tender *charities* of life, no benevolence, humanity, or friendship; nothing of that dignity which results from a well-regulated mind; in fine, no semblance, and no trace or shadow of what constitutes the true glory of man.'

The third and concluding book contains the solution given by Revelation, especially by the gospel, of the objections against the wisdom and goodness of God. Of these objections, the author considers the corruption of human nature to be the most formidable, and to be removed only by what Revelation teaches of the fall of man; although, when he comes to consider that account, he confesses that of the peculiar manner in which transgression was introduced into the world we are not explicitly and positively informed. He observes, (p. 109. vol. ii.) 'that the rejection of the corruption of human nature by Christian divines, while it is admitted by heathen philosophers and poets, is a striking instance of polemical perversity. The heathens had no system on this point to support; the Christian disputant had devised one by the maintenance of which his abilities were to be displayed

and

and his fame established.' Here Dr. B. confounds two very different opinions. No Christian divine, as far as we know, ever denied the extensive prevalence of corruption among mankind; nor did ever any heathen philosopher maintain that, in consequence of this corruption, human beings are guilty in the sight of God, and fit objects of his wrath and its everlasting consequences, before they have reason to will or power to execute either good or evil. Yet this is the doctrine of original sin. The reproach of sacrificing truth to the love of system might perhaps be retorted without difficulty by the Christian disputants whom Dr. Brown rebukes, on their antagonists who suppose an infinite atonement to have been necessary to remove the sin of a finite being, and vicarious suffering to have taken away imputed guilt. We are surprized to find him (p. 138.) quoting Isaiah, xiv. 14. as referring to the fall of the angels; since the subjoined epithet, "son of the morning," might have guarded him against the vulgar error of supposing *Lucifer* here to mean the devil.

Chapter VI. of this book is devoted to the eternity of future punishments, which the author argues to be consistent with the wisdom and goodness of the Deity. Of the various schemes devised in opposition to the orthodox opinion, he pronounces that of univeral restoration to be inconsistent with every rational expectation, as well as with the dictates of Scripture. To that of the final annihilation of the incorrigibly wicked, he objects (p. 216.) that we have no instance of the annihilation of material substances, which undergo merely changes and transmutations, and that therefore 'we have no analogical ground for inferring the annihilation of spirits which possess an immortal nature.' The last words evidently beg the question. In the next page, the following sentences occur: 'The third hypothesis is that of repentance in an intermediate state between death and the general resurrection and judgment, in consequence of which remission is obtained. If this be a state of sleep or insensibility, as is generally supposed by those who favour this scheme, how is it possible that the soul can repent while its faculties are suspended?' The objection certainly is fatal: but who are the persons that hold an opinion so ludicrously absurd? We were aware that some Christians believe the intermediate state to be passed in happiness, or in misery, according to the moral condition of the individual at his death; and that others hold it to be a state of complete insensibility: but of the existence of a sect which combines these two opinions, and holds it to be at once sleep and purgatory, we were not apprized till informed of it by

Dr. Brown. — He supports the doctrine of eternal torments by heathen as well as Christian testimony, and makes Virgil a believer in it on the strength of his

> "*Sedet, æternumque sedebit*
> *Infelix Theseus.*"

Theseus, however, instead of sitting still in his *eternal chair*, as Dryden calls it, returned not long afterward with Hercules to the upper regions. If Virgil must be brought into the discussion, he evidently belongs to the Restorationists:

> "*Ergo exercentur pœnis, veterumque malorum*
> *Supplicia expendunt. Aliæ panduntur inanes*
> *Suspensæ ad ventos; aliis sub gurgite vasto*
> *Infectum eluitur scelus, aut exuritur igni.* —
> *Donec longa dies perfecto temporis orbe*
> *Concretam exemit labem.*" — Æn. vi. 739. & seq.

The remaining chapters treat of the solution which Revelation furnishes, of those objections to the wisdom and goodness of God that reason is unable completely to remove; and of the duties, divine, social, and personal. — The extracts and observations which we have already made will enable our readers to judge of the learned author's general merits. His matter is rarely original, and his reasoning is not unfrequently inconclusive: but his sentiments are for the most part just, and his arrangement is luminous and popular; and, if the work may not go down to posterity as a κτῆμα ἐς ἀεὶ with the writings of Clarke, Butler, and Paley, yet, while curiosity is stimulated by novelty and the peculiar circumstances under which it has appeared, it may be useful to many who would never have applied to more standard productions. The style is often affectedly rhetorical when it should have been simply argumentative; and it trails with a languid redundancy of words, to which the author vainly endeavours to give emphasis by the profuse employment of italics. A strange instand of bad taste occurs in Vol. ii. p. 93.: 'The rulers and lords and princes of the earth often engage in contentions and wars and devastations, which *sweat them* more severely than their subjects are oppressed by the hardest labour. For, to omit every other consideration, in such cases

> "*Tacitâ* sudant *præcordia culpâ.*" — Juvenal, i. 167.'

We shall attend more particularly to Mr. Sumner's publication in a subsequent Number.

Art. IX. *Prescience:* or the Secrets of Divination. A Poem in Two Parts. By Edward Smedley, junior. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1816.

After the mass of nonsense which, in the discharge of our literary duty, we are so constantly compelled to peruse, it is indeed a relief and a refreshment to witness the gradual improvement and the corrected labours of a genuine English writer. To no department of criticism does this remark more forcibly apply than to that which is occupied in the examination of modern poetry; a branch of our literature which has become, by the injudicious disuse of the pruning knife, as wild and rugged as it was in its earliest growth and most ungoverned progress. As we have been thus repeatedly forced, therefore, to point out instances of this relapse to our antient rudeness and barbarism, we are particularly gratified in acknowleging the almost unmixed satisfaction which we have derived from the pure and elegant little volume before us.

The subject of 'Divination,' viewed in all its principal varieties of antient and modern superstition, and concluding with a reference to that best and only knowlege of futurity which we derive from virtuous hope and rational faith, may certainly be considered as offering a discussion productive of interest and utility. Ample justice has been done by Mr. Smedley to a theme thus sensibly selected; and, as far as a merely descriptive and didactic poem can attain the object of entertainment, his production is entertaining: but the capital want of one connecting and connected story, with the loss of that only universal source of amusement, the unity of action, must preclude it from ranking with the few English poems which boast this paramount attraction. We say the few *English* poems; because we fear that we have scarcely a rival in literature who does not excel us in the faculty of *story-telling*, or of simple and yet artful narration, appropriate to the purposes of poetry; a fact of which a very little reflection on the *foreign* originals of almost all our best poetical tales will convince us. Mr. Smedley's object seems to have been to tread in the steps of those successful writers who have chosen some passion or power of the human mind as the favourite groundwork of their compositions; and who have built on this foundation an edifice of moral reflection, historical illustration, and fanciful embellishment, calculated to instruct and to please the thoughtful and the classical reader. Such are the several "Pleasures," of "Imagination," of "Hope," and of "Memory," which have been deservedly admired and esteemed in their day; and which bid fair to possess a permanent reputation in the annals of our poetry.

Our readers will now see what they have to expect from that worthy follower of these polished productions who is here presented to them; and, laying aside all hopes of romantic adventures in a hero, or of violently strained feelings and extravagant opinions in an author, they must make up their minds to be pleased with plain good sense, enlightened and corroborated by much reading and reflection, warmed by true and natural tenderness, conveyed in musical and correct versification, and expressed in proper and poetical language. We are sorry that we have *no more* to promise them: but the

> " *Somnia, terrores magici, miracula, sagæ,*"

which they will here encounter, are all provokingly explained away; and they must sit down contented with the well regulated but far from cold imagination of a man of sense, and with the reasonable convictions of a Christian. In these days of wildness and of wonder, such a phænomenon of propriety and of plainness is indeed to be *deplored!*

> " 'Tis strange — 'tis passing strange —
> 'Tis pitiful — 'tis wond'rous pitiful!" —

Having therefore prepared our readers, as well as we can, against the indulgence of any unfounded hopes in their perusal of the poem of 'Prescience,' we shall now offer them some selections from each division of it; pointing out the portions which we like least, and those which we like most, in these and other passages; and recommending the notes (with one or two exceptions) to their attention.

In the first part, the author describes the famous scene that is said to have taken place before the battle of Philippi:

> 'Thus when their steel the band of brothers drew
> And Freedom bathed it in her holiest dew;
> When at the base, where imag'd Pompey stood,
> His thirsty spirit drank ambition's blood;
> Heaven on the deed it lov'd forebore to smile,
> And mourn'd its cause could triumph but awhile.*
> Then, as they tell, the sorrowing lord of day
> Veiled his bright coronal, and quench'd his ray;
> Glanced towards Philippi with diminish'd light,
> And shrank as conscious of the coming fight.
> 'The fight was near — already on the plain,
> Thousands had slept, who ne'er shall sleep again,
> Unless that dreamless nothing sleep we call
> Whose couch is spread for ever and for all.
> 'Twas that strange season when the waning night
> Unfolds her dusky wing to fly from light;
> When 'tis not morning, yet one single ray,
> Flung from the east, would almost make it day.

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* Mr. S. will do well to correct this imperfect and ungrammatical line.

Well may the waking fear that doubtful hour,
When spirits sail abroad, and fiends have power;
And o'er the slumberer's fancy-wilder'd view,
Flits many a dream, whose warning may be true.
By the dim taper in his tented dome,
Then sate the last best son of falling Rome;
The patriot dagger at his right hand lay,
Whose point had rent great Cæsar's soul away;
And in each pause of thought he trac'd the page
Rich with the honey of Athena's sage.
Can those be footsteps which his ear assail?
'Tis but the burden of the twilight gale!
Is that a shadow which deceives his eye?
He glances round — there's nought but vacancy!
A moment yet he looks — it stands there now,
Shap'd as before, and horror on its brow!
Fierce from each dim and shadowy feature broke
The chilling smile which sated vengeance spoke:
It rais'd the purple which was folded round,
And bared and counted many a gaping wound;
Stretch'd it's lank finger where the falchion lay,
Pointed the battle-plain, and sternly strode away!
'Calm sate the hero; once before his eye
Glar'd on that nameless vision passing by;
Dwelt on th' unearthly warning which it gave,
And saw, and listen'd as became the brave.
Vain all the portents which beset his way,
The dream by night, the sun obscur'd by day:
One only star could fix his longing view,
Th' unerring beam which patriot valour threw!'

We subjoin the note on the couplet in which Brutus is described as reading Plato:

'There is perhaps no authority by which it can be determined that Brutus was reading Plato at the time of the appearance of his evil genius; but Cato, his father-in-law, certainly did so under the same circumstances.'

Surely this is something like "the man in the story," who, on being asked "whether he understood German?" replied that "he did not, but that he had a *brother* who played the German flute." — Whether the story be *germane* to the matter or not, we cannot but smile at its being *deemed necessary* to make Brutus do as Cato did in similar circumstances. We have, however, often met with the idea.

Four lines in the above passage remind us strongly of Lord Byron:

'The fight was near,' &c.:

but we congratulate the author on his general enfranchisement from the fetters of an imitation which certainly encumbered his Seatonian poems.

Mr. S. introduces his visit to Stonehenge with some lines of commendation on Mr. Scott's "Midnight Trip to Melrose Abbey," which is in the memory and the mouth of every young lady and gentleman in the kingdom: but we are as little satisfied with this passage as with any one in the volume. It is sing-song, affected, and aukward; — with the exception of one pleasing but not very original line:

> ' To gentler scenes the Minstrel *may repair,*
> When the soft moonbeam *tints the golden air,*
> There drink *the fancies* pious cells impart,
> And trace their lavish wantonness of art;
> Chaunting *in lay* far richer than his theme
> The holy pride of Tweed's enamour'd stream.
> But would you view the Druid's fane aright,
> Choose not the stilly season of "*Moonlight!*"'

We cannot allow any such omission of the article as 'chaunting *in lay*;' nor any such pronunciation as *mŏŏnlīght*, making an arbitrary iambus out of a trochee, by a novel antispastic process, in the heroic measure, or in regular poetry. These vagaries should be reserved for the species of verse which first engendered them; the "Octosyllabic Romance," or "Modern Ballad-Epic."

The passage which follows is in a very different style, and is no doubt the product of the natural and unoppressed impulse of the writer.

> ' Rather when heaven's vast face is one black cloud,
> And darkness clasps all nature in her shroud;
> When the big rain falls pattering thick and fast,
> And the storm howls upon the gusty blast;
> Then gather round your cloak — well suits the time
> To tread the circle of that haunted clime.
> Far o'er the dreary heathsward lies your road,
> So far it seems not part of man's abode,
> So dreary that in silence you may bless
> The friendly gloom which hides its loneliness.
> But little needs the torches' ruddy glare
> To tell you when your steps have wander'd there:
> So bright the lightning's angry glance is thrown
> Where frowns that mighty shapelessness of stone.
> Huge, and immeasurable; breadth, and height,
> And thickness which o'ercharge the wondering sight;
> As if the fallen in his sport had rent
> Some rock for his eternal monument;
> And hurl'd the shivering quarry where it lies,
> Fit emblem of his pride, and might, and size.
> Apart from all the rest one seems to stand,
> Grim-visaged porter to the brother-band;

The brother-band, who fix'd for ever there,
In sullen state o'erlook the desert lair.
Few, yet how many! never to be told
Aright by man, or number'd in their fold.
Work, as the peasant fondly frames his tale,
Of him, the wizard of Cayr-Merdin's vale:
Or sudden, of themselves upsprung from earth,
Convuls'd and shrinking from her monstrous birth.
Erst girt around with everlasting oak,
Whose broad limbs never felt the woodman's stroke:
Seen but by purer eyes, to which were known
The lustral vervain, and the paddock stone:
Touch'd but by hands which cull'd the golden bough,
Mute to all lips but those which pour'd the vow.
'Such have they stood, till dim tradition's eye
Looks vainly back on their obscurity.
Through the wild echoes of their maze have roll'd
Fierce harpings fit to rouse the slumbering bold:
And many a song which check'd the starry train,
And bade the moon her spell-bound car restrain.
For some in such mysterious ring of stone,
Could mark the semblance of heaven's fiery zone;
Read lore celestial in each mass, and name
The planet's courses from its magic frame.
Haply no common rites have there been done,
Strange rites of darkness which abhor the sun.
There charms, and divination, and the lay
Which trembling fiends must list to, and obey;
And horrid sacrifice: the knife has dared
To search his bosom whom the falchion spar'd;
O'er some pale wretch, yet struggling with the blow,
The seer has bent to watch his life-blood flow;
Felt the pulse flutter, seen the eye grow dim,
Mark'd the quick throe and agony of limb;
Then pluck'd the living heart-strings from their seat,
And read each separate fibre while it beat.'

We omit the concluding paragraph of this animated portion of the poem; because we think that it is unsuccessful, indistinct, and (confessedly, according to the note) inexpressive of the writer's feelings. Much more vivid and real impressions of horror would have been made on the reader, if, instead of a 'synod of gods' of darkness and death, Mr. S. had introduced one apparently advancing but still unapproachable shadow among the pale circles of stone; — and if — but we shall reveal the secrets of our prison-house; and we here close the subject.

In the various pictures which Mr. Smedley offers to our admiration, he seems to have copied with some degree of happiness the style of many popular authors; and, as we have occasionally detected Lord Byron even in these more original pages, so we sometimes see other favourites of the public imitated with considerable success. The subjects and the manner of Crabbe are well represented by the description of the aged Crone; mistaken, as usual, for a witch by her neighbours: but, good as this passage is, we must advance to the second part of the work, in which we find several still more attractive specimens of poetical power.

The following attempt to pourtray a character of which so many have confessed,

"—— *nequeo monstrare, et sentio tantùm,*"

is far from unsuccessful:

'Oh! for that holy hope, that keen desire,
Which fans the slumbering spark of minstrel fire;
Breathes to his soul the rich perfume of fame,
And wafts the fragrance of a deathless name!
Oh! for that moment when no more repress'd
The master-spirit rages in his breast:
When from their source the bright creations rise,
And thought outruns each image it supplies.
When on the tablet of enraptured mind,
Each form is shadow'd out, but not defin'd;
And as the wildly blended colours flow,
O'er their first tints the lights of fancy glow.
'Tis then the mighty workman can combine
These jarring seeds in unconfus'd design;
His rapid eye the seeming waste surveys,
And marks the plan which regulates the maze;
Awakes a world where heaven and earth were blent,
And bars the waters from the firmament.
Ere yet its race his chariot has begun,
The course is pass'd, the goal of glory won:
Ere yet the quarry its rude mass bestows,
A God beneath the breathing marble glows
Swift to his lips unbidden numbers throng,
And inspiration rushes on his song;
Then coming ages pass before his eyes,
And dreams of long futurity arise;
Tongues yet unborn his living strain rehearse,
And climes unthought of echo with his verse;
He sees the laurel which entwines his bust,
He marks the pomp which consecrates his dust;
Shakes off the dimness which obscures him now,
And feels the future glory bind his brow.'

The note, which gives an extract from Dryden's dedication to the "Rival Ladies," descriptive of the progress of composition in the poetical mind, is interesting, from the great insight into the successive powers of understanding thus exerted which the quotation displays.

The part which succeeds, relating to Milton, is very just and very feeling: but we reserve our remaining room for two beautiful extracts (so indeed they may be called) on the dangerous though delightful common-places of long imaginary but at last realized love, and on the death-bed of friendship. The latter passage is in our judgment calculated to excite the interest and the sympathizing regret of the reader in a high degree. The poet has been talking of the 'Prescience' of neglected genius, and then comes to the sanguine anticipations of the lover.

> 'Nor these alone, but gentler hopes belong
> To the soft fancy-nurtur'd child of song:
> And mid the laurel's everlasting bower,
> Love's wanton fingers twine a lighter flower.
> Ah! who has ever glow'd with minstrel flame,
> Whom Love neglected for himself to claim!
> Ah! where the lover who has never paid
> His secret homage in the Muse's shade;
> 'There Fancy paints to his enamour'd gaze,
> Visions of happiness in coming days;
> Pourtrays some image of the yet unknown,
> And shews the spirit destin'd for his own;
> Half veils and half reveals her to his sight,
> And pours o'er all a dimly shadow'd light.
> Till in his own creation rapt, the boy
> Clasps with fond arms his unsubstantial joy;
> Hangs o'er the imagin'd form himself has made,
> And gives unreal substance to a shade.
> 'Pass'd is the spell, the talisman unbound!
> His air-built fabric shatter'd to the ground!
> The fairy landscape ravish'd from his eyes!
> The star of promise set beneath its skies!
> Ah! what the pause of being can supply,
> What fill his craving bosom's vacancy!
> Where may the pilgrim his lone steps delay,
> To slake the fever of his thirsty way!
> Springs but a single fountain in the waste,
> And is that one forbidden to his taste!
> Farewell the hopes which from ambition flow,
> Farewell the promise life and youth bestow:
> Joy idly breathes her easy hearted strain,
> And reeling pleasure beckons him in vain:
> The proffer'd goblet to his lip is dry,
> And beauty palls upon his wearied eye;
> Vain all the loveliness which others wear,
> Till the one statue of his hope is there!
> 'Yet o'er his search some hand unseen presides;
> Weans from the false ones, to the real guides;
> From his dim eye with favoring power dispels
> The mist which all diviner vision quells

Shadows the past, the forward pathway shows,
And gifts of planetary might bestows;
The glass whose surface but for one is clear,
The ring which presses when the lov'd is near.
' Soon as her first light whisper steals around,
His ready ear acknowledges the sound;
Deems it sweet music other days have known,
And catches ere it falls the coming tone;
So lost, yet so familiar and so dear,
He thinks 'twas always present to his ear.
Haply 'twas warbled ere condemn'd to earth,
His spirit gloried in its purer birth;
And echoes now its unforgotten strain,
To lure him upwards to his heaven again.
He views an image where the features seem
Like the vague memory of a scatter'd dream;
Or as the visage of a friend, whom time
Has render'd strange, with grief, or toil, or clime;
So like, we almost greet him by his name,
Yet so unlike, we doubt it is the same;
And wipe away the film, and with surprise
Scarce dare to trust the gladness of our eyes.
It is the single star, whose ceaseless ray
Has never dimm'd its blaze in ocean spray;
The pilot-beam, which steady light supplies,
The cynosure of never-clouded skies.
It is the holy dream by fancy bred;
The hope on which his solitude has fed;
The kindred nature whom his bosom claim'd;
The one for whom he felt his being framed.'

After this pleasing effusion, the author delicately and naturally introduces an allusion to his own contentment and happiness, in which every "gentle reader" must be ready to participate.

The lines on the Loss of a Friend, which must close our citations, will lead us back to the first part of the poem.—The hope of an immortal state, that best and most universal argument for its own reality, antecedently to the testimonies of Scripture, is well touched by Mr. Smedley.

' 'Tis this which whispers solace from the bier
Where moulders all the heart hath cherished here;
'Tis this which gilds the twilight of the tomb,
Thou art not lost for ever in its gloom,
For ever lost, my brother!—Oh! not all
Shall slumber on; but at the mighty call
Of the dread harbinger of endless fate
The captive soul shall burst its prison-gate.
Such is the glorious certainty which cheers
The sad survivor's manly-flowing tears;

And pours the sweetness of immortal breath
Through the dark valley of the shade of death.
'Where is the spirit now! th' immortal flame
Which glow'd beneath yon cold and lifeless frame!
Where now that lofty and aspiring mind,
Lord of itself, and friend of all its kind!
It sigh'd not from the bosom; for I knelt
Close to the heart, and its last pulses felt.
It flash'd not from the eye; I watch'd its beam
Fix'd on mine own, and drank its parting stream.
Yet is that bosom hush'd; and faded now
The doubtful lustre which illum'd that brow:
Mute are the lips which seem'd on life to dwell,
As if not yet content with doing well;
Which linger'd on their utterance but to pour
To friendship's ear one gentle accent more.
Rent too are now those heartstrings which alone
Throbb'd for our suffering, mindless of their own;
Told not approaching death lest we should weep,
And when they ceas'd to beat but seem'd to sleep.
'Thought can but little trace the fearful way
The soul must traverse when it quits its clay:
The unfathomable depths of boundless space,
The viewless worlds which gird its resting place.
Is it then sleep?—yes! long unbroken sleep!
Chill is the couch thy slumbering limbs must keep!
Curtain'd in night—the worm their bosom-mate!
Their dream—ah! who that dreaming can relate!
And when they wake—when at their prison-doors
Its all-arousing blast the trumpet pours;
When the dread herald rushes on the wind,
And summons forth the sons of human kind;
I see thee then, my brother!—to thine ear
Sweet flows the warning which the guilty fear;
The matin lay which heavenly minstrels sing,
"Joy to the blessed! Glory to their King!"
Fresh, as from light repose, I see thee rise,
Eternal hope bright gladdening round thine eyes;
And holy meekness, and the sainted smile
Which rapture wreathes on lips unknown to guile.
Thou goest before me—some few steps before—
Ah! if we join, we cannot sever more!
I see thee beckon—lead me onward now,
If at the sapphire throne I dare to bow;
Till snatch'd for one brief moment from my sight,
I lose thee in an endless blaze of light!'

Perhaps the author has gone a little too far, and somewhat out of his way, in the concluding portion of this ample extract: but the major part of it is, to our minds, highly poetical; and we have the truest pleasure in hailing such a revival of our old taste and style in English versification. Mr. Smedley should, however, avoid some minor faults in his diction and cadence; the former of which is sometimes rough and pedantic, and the latter, from the overstrained and misapplied fondness for variety in the pauses, is discordant and inharmonious: but these faults are very occasional; and let this admonition suffice; let it be '*this which whispers*' to Mr. Smedley to complete the polished accuracy of that style which is already refined indeed when compared with the licentious freedom of the majority of his poetical contemporaries; and to perfect the harmony of that versification which has very little to gain in softness, and nothing to lose by more general uniformity.

We must not omit, at parting, to call the reader's attention to a noble description of the death of Lord Russell; which, united with that of Brutus, forms an excellent pair of portraits.

Art. X. *Medico-Chirurgical Transactions*, published by the Medical and Chirurgical Society of London. Vol. VI. 8vo. pp. 680. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1815.

In our last Number, we made a report of the flourishing state of this Society, and of the contents of its fifth volume; and we are informed in the preface to this sixth volume, that 'not only the medical department of the army has continued its communications, but that one of the branches of the legislature, the several public offices of the Navy, and the honourable East-India Company, have allowed the Society access to their records, from which much interesting and valuable information has been derived.' The editors also notice the great additions which the library of the Society has lately received; and they farther state that, in consequence of the number of their communications, it is intended, for the future, to publish their transactions twice in the year.

The first paper is an interesting *Account of the Origin and Progress of the Plague*, as it appeared at Malta in the year 1813, by Dr. Calvert. He proposes first to give a faithful history of the events that occurred, and afterward to ascertain the law which the contagion observes in its propagation; whence we may deduce the best means of preventing its ravages. Much attention, it is admitted, was paid to every circumstance which was deemed essential to the great object of checking its progress, but without much success; owing, as Dr. C. supposes, to a false conception of its nature. The leading facts are these. A vessel came from Alexandria to Malta in the end of March, on board of which two persons had died under suspicious circumstances. Every care was taken to separate the infected crew, and the vessel performed the necessary quarantine: but a case of plague soon occurred in the city; and the disease gradually increased until it arrived at its greatest violence in July and August; when it slowly declined, but was not quite extinguished until the end of the year. It remained in some of the neighbouring villages longer than in the capital itself: but, by the end of January, the danger of infection was conceived to be so entirely over, that business of all kinds was allowed to resume its usual course.

In spite of all the research that was made, and all the interest that was excited, the exact method in which the contagion was communicated could not be detected; although it was agreed that the Alexandrian vessel was the primary source of the mischief. Dr. C. remarks that the antients supposed the atmosphere to possess the power of conveying the infection of the plague, but that among the moderns absolute contact is regarded as necessary, on which assumption all our quarantine-regulations are formed: yet he is convinced that it is impossible to explain the facts on the principle of absolute contact; and that nothing but the supposition of the contagion being conveyed by the air will account for its progress.* It is considered as a proof of some peculiar condition of the air, that, during the period of the epidemic, all diseases have a tendency to assume the symptoms of plague: an observation which has been confirmed in a variety of instances, and was amply illustrated at Malta. The following is the hypothesis which the author maintains:

> 'It appears to me, that this contagion or principle of plague, is diffusible in the atmosphere to a distance greater or less from an infected body, according to the climate and season of the year, and possibly to other peculiar states of the atmosphere, with which we are unacquainted: that in the spring or summer season, a single infected person is sufficient to contaminate the air of a whole city; and that those who happen to be then exposed to febrile causes, or otherwise predisposed, are the first to become its victims. That these newly infected persons generate a fresh supply of poison, increasing its strength and influence, till at length it becomes so powerful, that nothing but the winter-season will entirely put a stop to it.'

The facts recorded respecting the progress of the plague in other places are viewed as corroborating this opinion; and from it this practical deduction is drawn;

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* See Bonaparte's opinion on this subject, Rev. for Dec. last, p. 422.

'Instead of voluntarily admitting ships known to be infected with plague into the very bosom of our cities, we ought to use the utmost vigilance to prevent such an occurrence: not, however, by compelling the unfortunate crew to seek refuge amongst the merciless waves, but by erecting lazarets in such situations as would not endanger the public safety.'

The number of cases that occurred in Malta, from May to November, was above 4000.

Case of Locked-Jaw, cured by Oil of Turpentine given as a Glyster: by Dr. Phillips. — This very severe case of general convulsion, attended with spasm of the jaw so as to produce complete trismus, resisted all the medicines usually employed in such attacks, but was almost immediately relieved by a glyster of the oil of turpentine; which caused the discharge of a small worm, the first and only one that had ever been observed in this patient.

Dr. Titley, of St. Christopher's, relates an instance of *an extraordinary Enlargement of the Scrotum*, which occurred as a symptom of elephantiasis. 'It measured longitudinally, from the *symphisis pubis* to its base, 29 inches, circularly 43.' The patient, a negro about 30 years of age, was consequently rendered almost incapable of motion, and was so anxious to adopt any plan that afforded the least prospect of relief, that, after a trial of some remedies without effect, it was determined to attempt the entire removal of the tumour. The operation was accordingly executed, without much difficulty, and was successful. We are informed that the disease of elephantiasis is rapidly extending in the West Indies.

Mr. H. Earle proposes the employment of *Nicotiana in Retention of Urine*, when it is conceived to arise from a spasmodic contraction of the urethra. Such occurrences are not very unfrequent, and, when they do not give way to the usual remedies, are always regarded as of very serious consequence. Tobacco-glysters were used in three cases, and with every appearance of benefit. Mr. Earle subjoins also the history of a case of tetanus, the chief peculiarity of which consisted in the highly buffed appearance of the blood that was drawn.

Case of Obstruction in the large Intestines: by Mr. Thomas. —A patient, who had for some years been troubled with a hernial tumour, suddenly experienced the usual symptoms of strangulation; which, however, as the event proved, depended on the passage of a very large biliary calculus. It was analyzed by Dr. Marcet, and found to consist of the usual ingredients: it weighed 228 grains, and was above an inch and a half in the largest and above an inch in the smaller diameter.

Mr. Hyslop next relates a *Case of Incontinence of Urine, of nine Years' Duration*, which was cured by a new method of employing external pressure. —To this succeeds an important communication by Mr. Dalrymple, of Norwich; in which he states a case of *Aneurism of the left Orbit*, cured by an operation similar to that which was performed by Mr. Cooper, as detailed in the first volume of these Transactions. The carotid artery was tied without any considerable difficulty, and no untoward circumstance occurred to retard the patient's recovery. This paper must be received as a valuable confirmation of the practice of Mr. Cooper and Mr. Travers; and as tending to establish the safety and propriety of an operation which, until lately, would have been regarded as unwarrantably rash and dangerous.

An instance is then given by Dr. Phillips, similar to some of those that have lately been published, in which *Parts of a Fœtus were found in a Tumour in the Abdomen of a Girl two Years and a half old.* This tumour was in the left hypochondrium, weighed nearly 10lbs., and evidently contained several fœtal bones. — Mr. Chamberlaine, of Jamaica, performed an operation on an *Aneurism of the axillary Artery*, which occurred in a negro, and was the consequence of an accidental puncture. The artery was tied immediately below the clavicle; and, although some difficulty was experienced in conveying the ligature under the vessel, the cure was accomplished in about five weeks.

The two succeeding memoirs refer to that formidable disease, the *Cynanche Laryngea.* The first, by Dr. Roberts, contains an account of an attack of the complaint, about 14 years ago, in the person of Sir J. M. Hayes, from which he recovered, but he lately fell a victim to a return of it. The second paper consists of general observations on the symptoms and treatment, by Sir Gilbert Blane. He inquires whether it may actually be regarded as a new disease, or whether, although not understood until lately, it may not have been overlooked, or confounded with other affections of the throat; and this he conceives to be the case. With respect to remedies, Sir Gilbert gives the first place to blisters, which ought to be very large, and the second to bleeding; while he farther remarks that opium appears not to be indicated. Were we in any respect to dissent from the opinions of the author, it would be in assigning a greater degree of importance to bleeding; or rather in conceiving this to be by far the most powerful remedy which can be employed.

In the next paper, Mr. Chevalier gives an *Account of a Case of Croup*; in which it was deemed necessary to have recourse to the operation of bronchotomy, for the purpose of preventing immediate suffocation. That operation was easily performed, certainly appeared to give speedy relief, and was not followed by any dangerous consequences; yet we should hesitate in giving unqualified assent to a practice which, we apprehend, might in most cases be superseded by a prompt application of the appropriate remedies; and which, though in this instance unattended with danger, must always be regarded as formidable.

Among the most valuable papers in the volume, is to be ranked that of Mr. Lawrence, describing *a new Method of tying the Arteries in Aneurism, Amputation, and other surgical Operations.* The ends of the ligatures, when they pass through the external wound, constitute a serious impediment to the healing of the parts by the first intention; and the author makes the ensuing proposal to remove this extraneous substance:

> ' The method which I have adopted consists in tying the vessels with fine silk ligatures, and cutting off the ends as close to the knot as is consistent with its security. Thus the foreign matter is reduced to the insignificant quantity which forms the noose actually surrounding the vessel, and the knot by which that noose is fastened. Of the silk which I commonly employ, a portion sufficient to tie a large artery, when the ends are thus cut off, weighs between $\frac{1}{50}$ and $\frac{1}{60}$ of a grain: a similar portion of the thickest kind I have tried weighs $\frac{1}{20}$ of a grain, and of the slenderest $\frac{1}{100}$. These ligatures do not interfere with the process of adhesion, and we shall hardly entertain any serious apprehension that substances so minute will excite subsequent irritation and disturbance.'

The material which Mr. L. uses is generally called *dentist's silk*, a substance which is peculiarly strong in proportion to its size; and he endeavours to prove, both by argument and by actual experiment, that the necessary size of the ligature bears no proportion to that of the artery, or even that, the larger the vessel is, the smaller should be the ligature which we apply to it. A curious question here presents itself, and one which may appear at first view to involve a powerful objection against the new practice, viz. what becomes of the ligatures? 'Do they come away with the discharge, or remain where they are placed? in the latter case do they lie quietly in the parts? are they surrounded by a cyst containing matter? or may they be absorbed?' Mr. L. has not been able to discover that the ligatures come away from the wounds; and, by some experiments that were performed on dogs, it appears probable that they do not detach themselves from the vessels, but are completely enveloped in the coagulable lymph which exudes from the cut surface: as also that, from their minuteness, they do not produce any injurious irritation. The paper concludes with the relation of a number of cases of amputation, and other great operations; besides various experiments on animals, in which the arteries were secured in the way recommended above, and the progress of the cure corresponded with the author's expectations. In the course of his paper, the author takes an opportunity of enforcing the practice which we have noticed in our review of Mr. Guthrie's work, (Vol. lxxx. p. 42.) of amputating soon after the infliction of the injury, if no doubt subsists respecting the ultimate necessity of the operation.

The Society is indebted also to Mr. Lawrence for two other communications; the first reporting *two Cases of the true Elephantiasis,* written in conjunction with Dr. Southey; the second giving an account of *some Affections of the Larynx which require the Operation of Bronchotomy.* The general result of an ample range of inquiry, into which the author enters on this latter topic, will be best expressed in his own words:

'1. That the larynx is subject to affections differing considerably in the nature of their symptoms, and in their progress; but resembling each other in their ultimate effect, of obstructing the passage by which air is received into the chest.

'2. That the difficulty of breathing amounting to a sense of suffocation, the sound produced by the passage of the air, the affection of the voice, which is either extremely hoarse or reduced to a scarcely audible whisper, in many cases pain of the throat, and difficulty of swallowing, together with the absence of symptoms indicating affection of any other organs, are the signs by which this obstruction may be recognized.

'3. That the impeded state of respiration causes a violent constitutional disturbance in the acute cynanche laryngea, while it has a general debilitating influence in the more chronic forms of the disorder; and that these effects are in themselves fatal, after a certain time, even if the original obstruction be obviated.

'4. That local and general bleeding, blisters, and the various internal means are usually inefficacious.

'5. That the operation of bronchotomy, by providing an artificial opening for the air, produces complete relief, but, for the reasons mentioned under the third head, it is ineffectual unless performed very early.

'6. That the operation is free from danger, has been many times successfully performed, and has not in any instance produced unpleasant consequences.'

We have next an experimental essay, by Mr. Howship, on *the Means employed by the animal Economy in the Formation of Bone:* but we shall have it in our power to notice only some of the conclusions which he deduces, from an examination of the parts of the human subject and of other animals, as well in the fœtal state as in the subsequent stages of their growth. He conceives that, in the mammalia, the first rudiments of the long bones are produced by a secretion from the arteries, generating portions of cylinders, which are formed before the cartilages. Afterward, the cartilages themselves are produced, and are provided with a number of cavities and canals, lined with vascular membranes, which secrete a kind of gelatinous matter that seems subservient to the future growth of the bone; while its size and shape are determined by the extent of the cartilage. — The paper is illustrated by a series of engravings, representing the appearance of the parts as seen by the microscope.

Observations on the Mediterranean Fever: by Dr. Denmark. — The particular epidemic, from which these remarks are deduced, occurred in Minorca, and seems to have been chiefly occasioned by the English prisoners who, at the termination of the war, were brought from Marseilles to that island, previously to their being returned to their native country. With respect to the treatment, which forms the most important part of the essay, the author warmly advocates depletion. Bleeding is the most effectual, in the early stages of the fever: but he observes that it may be employed *too* early; and that it is not admissible until the chill, which usually occurs at the first invasion of the disease, has gone off, and the state of re-action has succeeded; nor is it proper to draw blood if the yellow suffusion has appeared. Calomel is considered to be a most valuable remedy, both when it acts as a purgative and when it produces salivation; indeed, it is remarked that those patients who were profusely salivated recovered the most rapidly. — Dr. D. candidly informs us that he entered on his professional duties impressed with the idea that the fever was not contagious, but that he was induced to alter his opinion.

Our readers will recollect the valuable dissertations of Mr. Brodie, on the diseases of the joints, which were inserted in the 4th and 5th volumes of these Transactions; and they will be gratified to find a continuation of them, under the title of *further Observations on the Ulceration of the Cartilages of the Joints.* He particularly describes the symptoms of this affection, from its commencement; details the progress of different cases that fell under his own inspection; gives an account of the appearances which were observed on examining the parts after amputation; and points out with minuteness the diagnostic symptoms of this disease, and of the inflammation of the synovial membrane of the joint. In the early stages, a cure may be accomplished by rest, issues, blisters, topical bleeding, and fomentations, with other remedies, according to the existence of particular symptoms; and, when the disease is taken at its commencement, and the constitution is sound, the prognosis is not very unfavourable. We regret that our limits will not permit us to enter farther into the merits of this paper.

Mr. Wheelwright then gives a *Case of Hernia Ventriculi*, in which, from an accident, the diaphragm was ruptured, so that a portion of the stomach passed into the chest, and produced the death of the patient.

We next enter on a long, interesting, and valuable detail by Sir James Macgrigor, of the *Medical History of the British Armies in Spain and Portugal, during the late Campaigns.* This paper, of which we can give only a very brief outline, is divided into four parts. In the first, we have the historical detail, from the time at which the author commenced his office, Dec. 1811, to the termination of the war, in June 1814, divided into four periods, corresponding with the different campaigns, or the various situations which the army occupied. In the second part, Sir James offers some remarks on the diseases which were the most prevalent, or the most dangerous; and in the third he gives an account of the means of prevention that were adopted, with the general circumstances by which the health of the men was promoted. We are informed that, during the two years and a half through which the narrative extends, '346,108 cases of disease or wounds were treated in our hospitals. There appeared to have been discharged cured from the hospitals, during this period, 232,553. There were invalided, as no longer fit for active service in the field, or sent to England for the recovery of their health, 4,586; and there died of their wounds or of disease 18,513.' This mortality, which, as Sir James observes, may at first view appear enormous, will not be found so great on attending to the manner in which the returns were made; it includes every man who had been wounded, and had been once seen by a surgeon, although he might expire almost immediately afterward:—on former occasions, it had been customary to reckon these among the killed. The diseases which appear to have been the most frequent, and the most fatal, were fevers of various descriptions, dysentery, pectoral complaints, and tetanus; respecting which last we have some interesting information, that must not only prove useful to the military practitioner, but must tend to establish several important points connected with the nature of the disease in general, and its treatment under all circumstances. The following paragraph presents a gloomy view of the resources of the medical art in this particular:

> 'The remedies which have been chiefly trusted to for the cure of this formidable disease are opium, mercury, wine, warm and cold bath, venæsection, ipecacuanha and digitalis in large doses, enlargement of the original wound, and amputation of the limb. These have been tried alone and in various combinations, and I am obliged to confess that the whole failed, in almost every acute case of tetanus which occurred. The three first have been administered in unlimited doses without effect; the cold bath is worse than useless.'

Sir James afterward adds;

> 'At this moment I am unable to say precisely the number of cases that were treated as they are included in the returns under the head, Wounds; however there were some hundred cases affording room for extensive trials. I am however obliged to confess, that little or no dependence is to be placed in any of the remedies, and I have to regret that the method of cure is yet to be discovered. In pointing out what military practice has enabled us to do, towards ascertaining the effects of medicines in large doses, and carried to their ultimate extent, I hope to leave the ground more open for the trial of new remedies. Judging from the very few successful cases, we may be disposed to trust principally to blood-letting, purging, opium and digitalis. As the disease appears to terminate in free sweating in some of the few successful cases, Dover's powder may be useful, and the vegetable alkali and tobacco fume are deserving of further trial.'

Under the third head, that of prevention, we meet with much gratifying information; and we behold the improvement of military medicine advancing in a degree of which, even a few years ago, we should have had no conception, and which most powerfully contributed to the ultimate success of our arms in the Peninsular war.

Important and interesting as is the communication of Sir James Macgrigor, we consider it as surpassed in both these respects by the one which follows it, from the pen of Sir Gilbert Blane, intitled *Statements of the comparative Health of the British Navy, from the Year 1779 to the Year 1814, with Proposals for its farther Improvement.* The different official situations which the author held, first as physician to the fleet in the American war, and afterward as commissioner of sick and wounded seamen from the year 1795 to the year 1802, have enabled him to furnish, from his own experience, many of the documents for this memoir; and for the remainder he obtained free access to the records of the navy. We may venture to assert that no instance is known in which the efforts of human skill and foresight have been more completely successful in accomplishing the object in view, than in the case of the improved health of seamen. Some of the most formidable diseases are nearly annihilated, the general mortality is greatly diminished, and the men are preserved in a state of efficient strength by which the author's statement is fully warranted, 'that it has added one-third at least to the naval force.' Indeed, without these ameliorations, the exertions which have been made during the late war would have been absolutely unattainable. Some of the greatest improvements consist in the entire removal of scurvy by means of the citric acid, in the great diminution of contagious fever by the necessary attention to ventilation and cleanliness, in the increased comfort of the men by a better method of preserving the water, and by judicious alterations in their diet and clothing. — The paper is accompanied by several tables, in which the different points argued by the author are confirmed by authenticated documents, taken from the records of the public offices.

We can do little more than announce the titles of the remaining papers. A case is related by Dr. Yelloly of *a very large urinary Calculus*, weighing nearly $3\frac{1}{2}$ oz., being *removed from the Urethra of a Female without Operation;* — then a case of *Incontinence of Urine, consequent on Ulceration of the Bladder*, by Mr. Barnes of Exeter, in which a cure was accomplished by a regulated pressure on the diseased part; — a *Case of Mortification of the Uterus*, occurring only a few hours after parturition, by Mr. Graham; — a recommendation of the *Lactuca Virosa in Hooping-Cough*, by Dr. Gumprecht of Hamburgh; — some very interesting *Experiments on Chyle*, by Dr. Marcet; — and some valuable observations of Mr. Travers on the effect of *Ligatures applied to Arteries*, being a continuation of his former researches on this subject.

The brief analysis which we have given of the contents of this large volume will sufficiently prove its value; and we believe that our readers will not differ from us when we say that it is the best collection of detached essays that has fallen under our notice.

ART. XI. *The Life of William Hutton*, F.A.S.S., including a particular Account of the Riots at Birmingham in 1791. To which is subjoined, the History of his Family, written by himself, and published by his Daughter, Catherine Hutton. 8vo. pp. 400. 12s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

IF books were made about little things, says Lord Bacon, there would be small use of experience; and perhaps the art of advancement in life might in some degree be reduced to science, by preserving minute lives of those who had been successful in the several chief departments of human effort. Yet we entertain suspicions that more of the innate, than of the acquired, may prevail in those qualities which principally determine success. Suavity and anger, patience and audacity, negligence and industry, have their predisposing causes as much in our organization as in our education: while personal beauty and mental intellect are exclusively the gifts of birth. At any rate, it is principally from the communications of the self-observer, that the relative force of nature and of discipline may best be ascertained.

Saint Augustin wrote the first and Gibbon the best of auto-biographies: but the extant mass of compositions in this line chiefly respects literary lives; and they rather tend to inspire the passion for authorship, or to teach the method of study, than to instruct the practical traveller in the ordinary roads of life. Our old (literary) acquaintance Mr. Hutton had a different purpose. His memoir of himself recounts in detail the steps by which a boy, employed from the age of seven to that of fourteen in a silk-mill on low wages, and next apprenticed for seven years more to a stocking-weaver, could ascend first to ease, and then to opulence, — marry, — station his children well, — and yet find leisure to become a very active magistrate and a very reputable author. The causes and history of such success well deserve to be recorded: they may serve as a light-house of direction, as a spur to emulation, as a cordial against despondence, and as a pastime during lassitude.

Mr. Hutton received from nature a good memory; and in his seventy-fifth year, when he was writing this life, he could distinctly recollect occurrences in the second year of his age. Memory is the elementary faculty, the great cause of our profiting by experience, the basis of imagination, the instrument of judgment; and *he* is not born poor who inherits this treasury, but will assuredly lay up in it something for use and something for ornament. Mr. H.'s early years were unassisted: he was only one among other children: his mother had not leisure for the officious cares of the nursery; and his father had no inclination to take much of the trouble of attending to his progeny. Hence a habit of self-reliance and self-government was produced in Mr. Hutton. He also grew up in want, in perpetual privation; and hence he obtained a habit of being contented with a little, which rendered his long and patient frugality rather a matter of course than an effort of prudence. To save is to begin to thrive. He spent his early years in a crowd: at home, mixing with many children, and at the silk-mill with many hundreds. This is an incalculable advantage: since a knack of seizing opportunities is only to be formed amid the multitude. Where many scramblers contend, a boy learns to help himself. The instinctive morality of human nature is reciprocity; it consists in being sharp with the selfish, liberal with the generous, harsh with the unkind, and gentle with the sensitive. Man is by nature a cameleon, who takes the colouring of the surrounding objects, and imitates it on his own skin. This somewhat plastic morality carries him farther in life than the precepts and doctrines of the schools. He who acts by an unswerving rule will deserve the praise of principle, and miss the aim at which he tends: but he who always contemplates the specific case, and proportions the nature of his effort to the plan of the scene, will more frequently accomplish his end. Such practical skill comes of itself in condensed masses of population, and it is this which gives the Londoner his advantage over the provincialist. Mr. Hutton, moreover, was compelled to unremitting labour, until diligence became a second nature and idleness a state of misery. These were the properties which were eventually to counterbalance the long and severe sufferings of a joyless youth. — In the year 1741, he made acquaintance with an old gentleman named Webb, to whom he ascribes influence in the formation of his intellect, but of whom he speaks with disappointing brevity:

> 'An old gentleman of the name of Webb, who had passed a life in London, brought 3000l. into business, lived in genteel life, and had filled many offices, but was reduced, came to reside with us. He was one of the most sensible and best of men, completely formed for an instructor of youth. It was my fortune to attend him, sleep with him, and love him. I treated him as a father, a monitor, and endeavoured to profit by him. He had many acquaintance, all men of sense, to whose conversation I listened by the hour.'

In the year 1742, he is again mentioned thus:

> 'Monday, July 18. my worthy friend Mr. Webb complained he had had an uncomfortable night. He grew worse till Friday morning, the 22d, when he died. I saw him expire, assisted in bearing him to the grave, and need not observe, I mourned his loss. His friends declined their visits, which added to that loss.'

The share of literary taste which Mr. Hutton acquired in early life appears to have been principally due to his attendance on this gentleman; of whom, for that reason, we should willingly have heard more.

In 1750, Mr. Hutton first founded at Birmingham the book-shop which was destined to make his fortune; and a dissenting minister of Gainsborough, named Rudsdall, helped the young adventurer, by confiding to him a small stock of books. Of this year's annals, a specimen will interest:

'On the 10th of April, I entered Birmingham, for the third time, to try if I could be accommodated with a small shop. If I could procure any situation, I should be in the way of procuring a better. On the 11th, I traversed the streets of Birmingham; agreed with Mrs. Dix, for the lesser half of her shop, No. 6. in Bull-street, at one shilling a week; and slept at Lichfield, in my way back to Nottingham.

'On May 13th, Mr. Rudsdall, a dissenting minister at Gainsborough, with whom my sister had lived as a servant, travelling from Nottingham to Stamford, requested my company, and offered to pay my expences, and give me eighteen-pence a day for my time. The afternoon was wet in the extreme. He asked why I did not bring my great coat? Shame forbade an answer, or I could have said I had none. The water completely soaked through my cloaths, but not being able to penetrate the skin, it filled my boots. Arriving at the inn, every traveller, I found, was wet; and every one procured a change of apparel but me. I was left out, because the house could produce no more. I was obliged to sit the whole evening in my drenched garments, and to put them on nearly as wet on my return the next morning! What could I expect but destruction? Fortunately I sustained no injury.

'It happened that Mr. Rudsdall now declined housekeeping, his wife being dead. He told my sister that he should part with the refuse of his library, and would sell it to me. She replied, "He has no money."—"We will not differ about that. Let him come to Gainsborough; he shall have the books at his own price." I walked to Gainsborough on the 15th May, stayed there the 16th, and came back on the 17th.

'The books were about two hundred pounds weight. Mr. Rudsdall gave me his corn-chest for their deposit; and, for payment, drew the following note, which I signed.

'"I promise to pay to Ambrose Rudsdall, one pound seven "shillings, when I am able."

'Mr. Rudsdall observed, "You never need pay this note, if you only say you are not able." The books made a better shew, and were more valuable, than all I possessed beside.

'I had now a most severe trial to undergo; parting with my friends, and residing wholly among strangers. May 23. I left Nottingham, and I arrived at Birmingham on the 25th. Having little to do but look into the street, it seemed singular to see thousands of faces pass, and not one that I knew. I had entered a new world, in which I led a melancholy life; a life of silence and tears. Though a young man, and rather of a cheerful turn, it was remarked, "that I was never seen to smile." The rude family into which I was cast added to the load of melancholy.

'My brother came to see me about six weeks after my arrival, to whom I observed, that the trade had fully supported me. Five shillings a week covered every expence; as food, rent, washing, lodging, &c. Thus a solitary year rolled round, when a few young men of elevated character and sense took notice of me. I had saved about twenty pounds, and was become more reconciled to my situation. The first who took a fancy to me was Samuel Salte, a mercer's apprentice, who, five years after, resided in London, where he acquired 100,000*l.* He died in 1797. Our intimate friendship lasted his life.

'In this first opening of prosperity, an unfortunate circumstance occurred, which gave me great uneasiness, as it threatened totally to eclipse the small prospect before me. The overseers, fearful I should become chargeable to the parish, examined me with regard to my settlement; and, with the voice of authority, ordered me to procure a certificate, or they would remove me. Terrified, I wrote to my father, who returned for answer, "That All-Saints, in Derby, never granted certificates."

'I was hunted by ill nature two years. I repeatedly offered to pay the levies, which was refused. A succeeding overseer, a draper, of whom I had purchased two suits of clothes, value 10*l.* consented to take them. The scruple exhibited a short sight, a narrow principle, and the exultations of power over the defenceless.'

The sufferings of Mr. Hutton during the Birmingham riots in 1791, of which an interesting and valuable account is given, form a conspicuous incident in his life. Indeed the narrative, which is too long for our insertion, well deserves to become a separate pamphlet, for which it was originally destined by the author. After having related in great detail those lamentable outrages, he thus continues:

'Having now no place of abode, I attempted to hire a house at Ashsted, which lies between my two former habitations; but Brooke, who was the proprietor, refused to let it to me: whether from the fear lest he should not be able to protect his own house from the violence of his own party, if occupied by a Dissenter, I know not; but I believe it. After several other fruitless applications, Richards, the master of Vauxhall tavern and bowling-green, consented to lodge and board my family at the hazard of his own property. We stayed there till Christmas, and found the utmost civility.

'The cruel treatment I had met with totally altered my sentiments of man. I had considered him as designed to assist and comfort his species; to reduce the rough propensities of his nature, and to endeavour after perfection, though he could not reach it. But the return I met with for having sacrificed nearly two days a week of my time, and no small portion of my talents, to the gratuitous service of the public, during nineteen years, (as an active Commissioner in the Court of Requests,) convinced me that the nature of the human species, like that of the brute creation, is to destroy each other.

'These considerations determined me to withdraw from all public business, to spend the small remainder of existence with my little family, and amuse myself with the book and the pen.

'It is curious to consider to what a vast extent popular prejudice will run. Very few men were more liberal in their religious and political sentiments than myself, but now the slightest actions of my life tended "to sap Government, and pull down the Church." As a deer, selected from the herd to be run down, I was forbidden the society of man. Three or four friends met me once a week to sup at Vauxhall. We were charged with scheming against Government. We were threatened with an attack, and the house with being burnt. We were obliged to desist. Even so lately as April 1798, as I passed at three in the morning through Woodcock-lane, in my way to Mamble, to consult with a tenant about the repairs of a house, I was accosted in the dark by three men, whom I did not know, but took for night strollers. They asked whither I was going? Not accustomed to such a salutation, I replied, "Not far." I understood afterwards they were the patrole. They knew me, and reported "That I was going to some Jacobin Club which was plotting against Government, and they had a good mind to have followed me." If they had, I should have led them a dance of twenty miles to breakfast at Kidderminster.

'The fatal 14th of July, 1791, was by far the most important era of my life. The tide of existence was turned into another and a bitter channel. A black cloud was raised over my head, which the sun of prosperity can never disperse. I entered Birmingham July 14. 1741, as a runaway 'prentice, a forlorn traveller, without money, friend, or home. And that day 50 years began those outrages, which, when a wealthy inhabitant, drove me from it, and left me in a more deplorable state of mind than at the former period.

'These events occasioned the disorder of Mrs. Hutton to make rapid strides. We were alarmed, and determined to take her to the Hot Wells near Bristol. My daughter accompanied her in the carriage, and this was the first journey in which my attendance was omitted, owing to the confused state of my affairs.'

After this fatal incident, a browner tinge colours the latter prospects of the venerable and worthy writer. He published many topographical works, (which have been noticed in our pages,) and died in 1815, at the great age of ninety-two. His daughter narrates with feeling, with elegance, and with the utmost minuteness, the last moments of her justly honoured parent; and his character is thus exquisitely summed up:

'My father has delineated his own character in the history he has written of his life. Little more remains to be said, and I hope that little will not be too much.

'I think the predominant feature in my father's character was the *love of peace*. No quarrel ever happened within the sphere of his influence, in which he did not act the part of a mediator, and endeavour to conciliate both sides; and, I believe, no quarrel ever happened where he was concerned, in which he did not relinquish a part of his right. The first lessons he taught his children were, that *the giving up an argument was meritorious*, and, that *having the last word was a fault.*

'My father's love of peace made him generally silent on those inexhaustible subjects of dispute and animosity, religion and politics. His sufferings at the riots drew his sentiments from him, and he gave them without reserve. They will be found too liberal for the present day. Public opinion, like the pendulum of a clock, cannot rest in the centre. From the time of the riots it has been verging towards bigotry and slavery. Having reached its limits, it will verge towards the opposite extremes, infidelity and anarchy. Truth is the centre; and, perhaps, my father's opinions may not have been wide of the mark.

'The few lessons of good breeding that reached my father in early life were never forgotten by him. His friend Mr. Webb had said, "Billy, never interrupt any person who is speaking." My father was a patient hearer. He waited till his turn came; and frequently, in the clamour of a public table, his turn did not come, and what he had to say was lost. I never knew him make one of two persons speaking together. He did not begin till another had ended, and he stopped if another began.

'My father's conduct towards his children was admirable. He allowed us a greater degree of liberty than custom gives to a child; but, if he saw us transgressing the bounds of order, a single word, and that a mild one, was sufficient to bring us back. He strongly inculcated the confession of an error. A fault acknowledged was not merely amended: in his estimation it almost became a virtue.

'My father was an uncommon instance of resolution and perseverance, and an example of what these can perform. Another, I might almost say, every other, would have sunk under supposed inability, when he was falling to the ground; and would, therefore, have been irrecoverably in bed, while he was still walking. My father was so tenacious of his activity and independence, that he performed every one of his accustomed actions, till it was not possible for him to do it once more. I have no doubt that he prolonged his powers and his life by these exertions. The ill consequences of exercise are precarious, those of sitting still are certain.

'My father was nearly five feet six inches in height, well made, strong, and active; a little inclined to corpulence, which did not diminish till within four or five months of his death. From this period he became gradually thin. His countenance was expressive of sense, resolution, and calmness; though when irritated or animated he had a very keen eye. Such was the happy disposition of his mind, and such the firm texture of his body, that ninety-two years had scarcely the power to alter his features, or make a wrinkle in his face.'

This peculiar specimen of biography is still more instructive than entertaining: it will most amuse those classes of the people who are engaged in commercial pursuits, and who can follow with steady interest the gradual footsteps of a climbing prosperity. A history of the Hutton-family is appended, drawn up in the best manner of the antiquarian school, by the biographer himself.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1817.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Ines,* and other Poems. 8vo. pp. 208. 8s. Boards. Allman. 1816.

Several very pretty little passages occur in the poem of Ines: but it is full of faults, and a general languor and laziness pervade it, which neither demand nor deserve farther notice. It is evidently of that class of poems which are written to amuse the author rather than to benefit the reader. We have phrases of every sort and degree of incorrectness; verses of inexhaustible variety in ruggedness; and accentuation in all shades of impropriety. Whether the connecting particle be left out, or the emphasis be laid on the wrong syllable, or the rhyme be discord itself, the poet proceeds with the same noble *nonchalance.*

> ' The land of Portugal, where *smile*
> A lovelier race, a warmer *soil,*
> And dark ey'd maids, with soft guitar,
> Sing pensive to the evening star;
> Or every care in joy forget,
> Dance to the sounding Castanet!' Page 5.
>
> ' Or witness'd oft the mimic fray
> Of gallant Knights in high tournēy.' P. 7.
>
> ' 'Tis your's at least *to never prove*
> The agony of hopeless love.' P. 16.

In order to pronounce several of the verses, with *any* musical rhythm, the reader must draw his breath with a most dextrous rapidity. For instance; the following lines, though kept in countenance by thousands of irregular contemporaries, are of no species of legitimate metre which was known in England before the present day; or which, if ever previously known, had not long been deservedly forgotten:

> ' The evening was closing dark and sad,
> When the stranger, in pilgrim's garments clad,
> Bade the boatmen steer their little bark.'

Miss Holford and Mr. Scott have, we know, repeatedly trifled with their readers in this manner: but such a cadence has nothing to do with music, and is altogether barbarous and absurd. The repeated dull echo of a paviour's mall is as melodious as the stupid uniformity of the foregoing terminations.

We observe a false print at page 83. of ' distur'd' for *disturb'd;* which, in course, we should not have marked, did it not illustrate a pervading quality of the verse which is daily inflicted on us; we mean the constant plagiarism, and the equally constant depravation

("*Quod depravatum creditur esse meum*") of every thing which is stolen, from older and superior authors. Who does not recognize, and who does not lament to recognize, Pope's beautiful couplet,

> "When not a cloud o'ercasts the solemn scene,
> And not a breath disturbs the deep serene,"

in the subjoined feeble and inaccurate passage:

> 'The moon ——
> Shining o'er vale and woods serene,
> No sound disturb'd the solemn scene.'

We conclude with another instance of the sign of the infinitive mood separated from the verb to which it belongs, as before:

> 'Oh! may he learn *to ne'er invade*
> Again another's peaceful shade.'

Art. 13. *Emigration; or England and Paris, a Poem.* 8vo. pp. 52. 3s. 6d. sewed. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

The language, numbers, and general style of this poem sufficiently indicate that the author is by no means unskilled in the composition of blank verse, and that he possesses a mind imbued, to a certain degree, with poetical imagery. 'A patriotic motive,' we are told in the preface, was the source whence the poem originated; its object being to repress that general enthusiasm for foreign travel, which has lately carried away so many of our countrymen from our own shores, to the prejudice of the natives at home. The author's intentions, therefore, were indisputably good, and the execution of his work might have been equally commendable, if he had not out-stretched all his arguments and ideas in a manner very unbecoming in a man of sense. His picture of France would be far better adapted to the gloomy regions of Tartarus, or the murky abodes of Sin and Death, than to convey to the mind of his reader any just idea of the finest climate, the richest soil, and the most fruitful country in Europe or the world. So great, indeed, is his aversion to our neighbours across the Channel, that no epithets of abuse appear sufficiently forcible for his purpose; and, in his haste to condemn and execute his unfortunate fellow-mortals, he has exposed himself to the charge of sameness and, repetition, as well as to that of intemperate invective and undeserved reproach.

> 'Paris, foul spoiler of unnumber'd realms,
> The curse of nations.'
>
> 'The wretch, whose heart can riot in the scenes
> That *guilty Paris* yields.'
> —— 'What in return
> Shall *fawning Paris* yield.'
>
> '*Paris*, thy sleek urbanity is false.'
> —— '*Paris knows no God*
> But pomp and pleasure.' ——
> —— '*Paris boasts*
> *No index to the skies.*' ——

All this, and much more, being conceived and written with a sufficient degree of bad taste, we must confess our regret that a work, which in many parts exhibits indications of poetic talent, has been defaced by so woeful a multitude of deformities. One object of the author appears to have been to protect from contagion the morals of his countrymen: but how will such an end be attained by the diffusion of uncharitable sentiments? If he sought only to represent the danger of imbibing too great a fondness for continental manners, he might surely have contented himself with rational censure, and needed not to have dipped his pen in the venom of scurrility. That large cities will always be found productive of vice, in proportion to the extent of their population, is a maxim indisputably true: but that Paris, in particular, is so decidedly the seat of profligacy, that 'it is an immoral thing,' as the author represents 'to be found there,' we are very far from being convinced. It might not be easy, perhaps, to prove that Paris contains a greater proportion of vice, or of vicious persons, considering its extent and population, than the cities of Naples, Genoa, Florence, Milan, Venice, or even the immaculate London itself. Neither are we of opinion that the English, during the late war, when they were excluded from the Continent, were a more moral people than they are likely to become since a free communication has been opened between them and their neighbours. With these strictures on the general sentiments of the poem, and with some reprobation of such phrases as, '*'Tis wondrous well,*' which occurs twice, pp. 20. and 21., '*emanate* its odours,' and a few others, we close our remarks, in terms of approbation as to the nervousness of the style and the general spirit of the verse.

Art. 14. *Verses to the Memory of the late Richard Reynolds, of Bristol.* By James Montgomery. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co.

Mr. Montgomery has here paid the just tribute of his affections to the memory of a most extraordinarily benevolent and virtuous friend. Mr. Reynolds was a rich member of the Society of Friends, who made it a rule to spend his whole income in acts of charity, after the wants of his own moderate establishment were supplied. In one year, 1795, he was known to have given away *twenty thousand pounds!* and at another time he completely cleared a prison of all its unfortunate occupants who were confined for small debts. — The verses are divided into three distinct parts, intitled, 'The Death of the Righteous,' 'The Memory of the Just,' and 'A good Man's Monument.'

So numerous is already the catalogue of encomiastic poetry on deceased worthies, that it would be unreasonable to expect much novelty of sentiment or expression on so thread-bare a topic. The awful termination of human life can never, indeed, fail to inspire an ardent imagination with sublime and solemn ideas; while the hopes of a resurrection, and the future recompence of virtue, must invariably fill with rapture a mind that is susceptible of religious impressions: — but there is a certain degree of sublimity, beyond which the powers of language refuse to accompany the flights of imagination; and, when arrived at this exalted pitch, the mind is

better

better satisfied with pursuing its course alone and unperceived, than encumbered by the humbler materials of sound and speech. Be this, however, as it may, certain it is that the sublimer the subject the more skill is required on the part of the poet to adapt his numbers and his sentiments to the ground-work of his plan; and to have clothed in mediocrity of language the most elevated conceptions, of which the mind is capable, is a failing that ought not to escape the notice of criticism. — The first part, on 'the Death of the Righteous,' though it contains not any idea particularly novel, or any very striking display of poetical language, is perhaps free from censurable blemishes: but the second part, on 'the Memory of the Just,' is written in a metre too nearly approaching that of ordinary ballads to harmonize well with the sacredness of the subject. The last part exhibits an improvement on both the measure and the style of the verse: but here also mediocrity, we fear, must still be considered as the prevailing feature.

Art. 15. *The Naiad's Wreath.* By Mrs. M'Mullan. 8vo. pp. 87. 5s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1816.

The fair author of "the Wanderings of a Goldfinch" here appears again at the tribunal of criticism. The opinion, which we have lately delivered with regard to the former efforts of her muse, though not perhaps positively encomiastic, might be considered as negatively favourable; and a manifestation of industry exerted for a laudable end, with the prospect of future gradual improvement, required mercy at our hands. It will be necessary, however, in the present instance, to be somewhat more minute in particularizing the faults of the writer; lest a degree of negligence, which we may have occasion to remark on her part, should appear to have originated in a similar want of attention on ours.

The present 'Wreath' is composed of flowers of various hues and different degrees of beauty; and, though certain weeds and thorns have in many parts found their way into the chaplet, its colours are, generally speaking, of a higher order than those of the *Wandering Goldfinch*. To drop the metaphor, we find, in the present instance, more numerous faults, but a greater assemblage of pleasing ideas and poetical images: — a greater attempt and a stronger flight; though the one is not wholly successful, nor the other very vigorously supported.

In the first short poem, addressed to the Princess Charlotte, we find the word Pyrenēan with the third syllable shortened, Pyrenĕan. 'Britannia's banner waved and couch'd her lance' means, we presume, Britannia waved her banner, and couch'd her lance. The word 'wove' is subsequently used for wove themselves, or were woven. '*Favourite of Jove*' is an exceedingly good appellation for one of Homer's heroes, but to a British General, in modern days, it is inapplicable and improper. The lines 'on a Letter' are pleasing and fanciful enough: but we could wish that they had received, from the fair hand of the writer, that 'touch and retouch' which her preface mentions as being 'so essential to the polish of verse.'

Mrs. M'Mullan's great fault is *inaccuracy*. Her thoughts are poetical, and her numbers harmonious, but her language often betrays negligence and want of attention to *grammatical niceties*. We should earnestly recommend it to her to intrust her future MSS. to the inspection of some literary friend, who may be well versed in the true principles of correct composition both in poetry and prose.

BOTANY.

Art. 16. *Compendium Floræ Britannicæ, Auctore Jacobo Edvardo Smith, Equ. Aur. M.D. Societatis Linnæanæ Præside*, &c. &c. Small 8vo. pp. 202. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

After the ample reports which we have given of Sir James Smith's *Flora Britannica* *, it would be very superfluous to notice this abridgment of it at any length. The first edition, which appeared in 1800, quickly superseded (we believe) the less perfect manuals of a similar description; and the present impression not only keeps pace with the three volumes of the Flora already published, but includes nearly a hundred and ninety newly discovered species. The plan is conceived and executed with all due regard to accuracy, comprehensiveness, and convenience.—To each class is prefixed a brief synopsis of the genera; and under every genus are distinctly arranged its respective species, with reference to the volumes and plates of Sowerby's English Botany, the characters of the plant, its kind of habitat, its duration, its size, the season of the year in which it flowers, and a statement of such marked circumstances as may render it more easily recognized by the student. The adoption of a minute type, of numbers for the months of the year, and of symbols for the terms *herbaceous*, *annual*, &c. have enabled the author to comprize all the requisite particulars within a very portable size. — In the *fulness of time*, he may perhaps find it advisable to publish his compend of the cryptogamous class in a separate form.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 17. *The Sunday-Lecturer*, or Fifty-two Sermons addressed to Youth, selected and abridged from approved Authors, &c. By Anne Lee. 12mo. pp. 440. 7s. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1816.

As these discourses are addressed principally to the young of both sexes, they very properly treat of practical rather than doctrinal subjects; and the preface states that it has been the fair editor's design carefully 'to avoid every sentiment and expression of a controversial nature; but she has as sedulously endeavoured to inculcate in these pages those peculiar truths of the Christian religion which distinguish it from every other system of faith, and which every Protestant church has ever considered as of the greatest importance.' We have pleasure in observing that she appears to have adhered to this admirable rule; although a great proportion of the authors, from whom the selection has been made, are not included within the pale of the establishment. Some apology is offered to these writers for the occasional variations in the language, which it has been found necessary to make, in order the better to adapt the discourses to the capacity of the youthful mind. At the end of the volume is appended a list of questions for examination on the several topics of each discourse, designed to exercise the student's memory, and to impress more strongly the principal truths which the sermon has inculcated.

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* See Vols. xxxvi. and xlvii. of our New Series.

POLITICS.

Art. 18. *An Inquiry into the Extent of the present real Depreciation of landed Property, with its Causes;* and the best Mode of managing Estates under the present Circumstances. By John Sellon, Land-agent. 8vo. pp. 55. Baldwin and Co.

Beginning with some general observations on political events as productive of the present embarrassment of the agriculturists, Mr. Sellon proceeds to that department of the subject which falls more properly under his cognizance in the capacity of a land-agent. Nothing, he says, is a matter of greater uncertainty than the exact degree of depreciation sustained of late by land; some persons insisting that the sale-price has not fallen above ten per cent., while others maintain that the depreciation is seven times as great. He attempts to reconcile these jarring estimates by a calculation founded on the average prices of wheat, barley, and oats, for the last fourteen years; the result of which gives a fall of about twenty-five per cent. in the value of land. The actual distress, however, is far beyond any proportion suggested by this ratio of comparison; many persons having engaged in farming without either knowlege or capital for the prosecution of their business, and having exposed themselves consequently to be immersed in bankruptcy on the first cessation of their imagined profits.

Mr. S. undertakes in the second place to discuss the important question of relief. Rents have evidently been over-stretched; and a reduction, generally of twenty-five per cent., has taken place in most parts of the kingdom during the last twelve months: but, instead of abatements on this plan, Mr. S. recommends the adoption of the principle of a corn-rent; that is, of making the sum of money bear a proportion, not, as in the case of tithes, to the quantum of the produce, but to the market-price of corn for a series of years. Registers are now kept at all our principal towns; so that no difficulty would occur in making a correct and equitable application of the proposed rule. Farther relief may, in the course of years, be obtained by improving the implements and machinery of farming; as well as by a general adoption of the modes of husbandry practised in such counties as Norfolk, Northumberland, Berwickshire, or East Lothian. The aid to be thus attained is somewhat remote, but it will be substantial and permanent. — On the whole, this tract contains some useful recommendations, and is deficient chiefly in brevity and clearness.

Art. 19. *Review of the present ruined Condition of the Landed and Agricultural Interests;* with Observations on the Extent of their Losses and Distresses, the Origin and History of these Distresses, the Funding System, the Sinking Fund, the Burthen of the Poor, the System of Tithes in Kind, Stock-Jobbing, Usury through the Medium of redeemable Annuities, Employment of discharged Soldiers and Sailors, the Public Debt, and the Expediency of supporting the Public Faith to its Creditors, the Reduction of the legal Rate of Interest of Money, the Reduction of Rents. By Richard Preston, Esq. M. P. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Law and Whittaker, &c. 1816.

The Bullion-question gave rise to many crude effusions, but the agricultural distress of the present day bids fair to match its predecessor both in the number and the futility of the productions which it calls forth. One of the least exceptionable passages in Mr. Preston's pamphlet is that in which (pp. 17, 18.) he comments on the nature of the Sinking-fund; a powerful expedient for facilitating loans, which has been one of the great causes of our protracting the war until our expences swelled to the enormous amount that has brought us into our present distressed condition.

'Of all the measures ever introduced into political action, the Sinking Fund has been made most instrumental to deceive the people. Instead of causing a diminution, it has been converted to the purpose of being the great instrument of increasing the burthen of taxation. —

'It excites a smile of contempt also to see with what gravity men receive the consoling rehearsal, that by means of the Sinking Fund we have purchased about 250 millions of our National Debt, considered as the old debt. A school-boy ought to be chastised, who could not easily discover, that if a man borrowed 100l. every year, and laid aside 100th part of the sum at compound interest as a sinking fund against the old debt, his debt would end in his ruin. — Whoever compares this statement with the result of the Sinking Fund, will find three facts.

'1. That the Sinking Fund has given facility to new loans.

'2. That the Sinking Fund, arising from the old debt, has made very little progress in the redemption of that debt. — And

'3. That the greater part of the produce of the Sinking Fund arises from the sum abstracted from the new loans, and compound interest on the sums so abstracted.'

We are sorry that we cannot pay the author a compliment on other remarks in his pamphlet. In some parts, (pp. 19, 20.) he reasons at great length on things too obvious to require illustration; while elsewhere (pp. 13, 14.) he deals in a strain of loose and vague argument, extremely unfavourable to the attainment of precise ideas on a subject of such intricacy. In others, again, (pp. 10, 11. 18.) his 'Review' bears such marks of haste as to have been sent to press without filling up the blanks of the MS.; so that its favourable reception can be explained only by its adaptation to popular notions and to the writer having brought regularly before his readers either a bold assertion or an individual statement; which, whether right or wrong, is calculated to leave a clear and even a strong impression. In what other manner can we account for the circulation of a tract so contradictory that, in one part, the author urges strongly a reduction of the rate of interest by act of parliament, while elsewhere (p. 28.) he recommends the suspension of the Sinking-fund; the engine which is most calculated to produce the effect that he desires?

To judge from Mr. Preston's table of contents, we might be led at first to anticipate something like connection and arrangement: but, on dissecting the body of the essay, we find it the production of a pen exercised in writing straight forwards, and in noting down one string of ideas after another, exactly as they suggested themselves to the mind of the author; a mode which might have formed a very good foundation for a disquisition, had Mr. P. chosen to submit to the trouble of revising and re-arranging his materials, retrenching his perpetual repetitions, and curtailing his almost endless exuberances. Should this censure appear severe, we have merely to request our readers to turn to the latter part of the pamphlet, where Mr. P. discusses the expediency of that very questionable point, — a limitation of the rate of interest. Instead of coinciding with Mr. Bentham, and other political economists, in regretting the interference of Government in this respect, he wishes to draw still tighter the bonds of compulsion, and to stigmatize as illegal all interest above the rate of four per cent. So little, also, is he acquainted with the natural and irresistible course of money-transactions, as to imagine that an act of parliament would be found effectual in accomplishing that which no sovereign, in the most despotic part of Europe, was ever able to effect.

We close this notice by extracting one of the best passages of the work, which suggests occupation for the great number of hands discharged from our army and navy, or otherwise thrown out of employment by the great political change that has lately taken place:

'Extended husbandry, with those improvements which attend it, would give employment to the soldiers and sailors who were bred up to the habits of rural life; and in particular to masons, carpenters, and other mechanics; to an increase of the home-manufactures, arising from an increased demand. A restoration of fair prices for agricultural produce would give to circulation employment for those who were bred up in that line. A liberal policy of forming new lines of canal and rail-roads, especially the latter, in those districts which stand in need of those beneficial improvements, and a change of the line of turnpike-roads to more useful points, so as to bring them on a level, as far as the nature of the country would admit, (and there are few situations in which great improvements in this respect are not practicable,) would keep a large portion of the labouring classes of the community in a state of activity and of public utility.'

Art. 20. *Statements of the Revenue and Expenditure of Great Britain in each Year of the late War,* from 1803 to 1814, both inclusive.

clusive. Compiled from the Accounts presented to the House of Commons. By Charles Stokes. 4to. Richardson.

This publication is merely a tabular statement, on a few quarto pages, of the public income and expenditure during the twelve years of war, from 1803 to 1814, both inclusive. An idea of it may be formed from the following summary, which exhibits the average of national receipt on an average of twelve years, to the exclusion of fractions.

Permanent-taxes.		
Customs, annual average, about	£8,500,000	
Excise - - -	18,500,000	
Stamps - - - -	4,800,000	
Land-tax - - -	1,400,000	
Assessed taxes - -	5,600,000	
Post-office - - -	1,600,000	
		40,400,000
War Taxes.		
Customs, annual average, -	2,500,000	
Excise - - -	9,800,000	
Property-tax - -	9,800,000	
(The rate having been for some years at 5 per cent.)		
Lesser taxes - - -	380,000	
Lottery, clear profit, - -	420,000	
		22,900,000
Loan, on an average, - -		20,000,000
	Total	£83,300,000

Our expenditure may be exhibited with tolerable accuracy in a similar compass.

Interest of the funded debt on an average of twelve years - - - -	£20,000,000
Ditto of unfunded - - -	1,500,000
Sinking-fund - - -	10,000,000
Navy - - - -	18,000,000
Ordnance - - - -	4,000,000
Army, including extraordinaries, -	20,000,000
Foreign subsidies - - -	3,000,000
Miscellaneous services - - -	1,700,000
Civil list - - - -	1,000,000
Pensions, including allowance to royal family,	3,500,000
Bounties - - -	400,000
French clergy, American loyalists, &c. -	200,000
Total	£83,300,000

The plan of Mr. S. is to content himself with a mere exhibition of particulars, without attempting any observations on the collection or expenditure of these formidable sums: but he has been careful to assign the expences of each year to the proper date;

and he has avoided the extraordinary misrepresentation, common in many office-returns, of making the receipts of one year appear to be those of another, as in putting under the head of 1807 the receipts of 1806, for no other reason than that the quarterly account ends on the 5th of January of the latter year.

NEGRO-SLAVERY.

Art. 21. *A Brief View of the actual Condition and Treatment of the Negro Slaves in the British Colonies;* in a Letter to a Member of the Imperial Parliament. By Captain Henderson, late 2d Battalion 44th Regiment, and Assistant Quarter-Master-General. 8vo. pp. 56. Baldwin and Co. 1816.

Captain Henderson is already known to our readers as the writer of the description of the settlement of Honduras, noticed in our lxiiid vol.; and he has been induced, on the present occasion, again to take up his pen, in order to vindicate the cause of the West-India planters, and to lay before the public several objections to the (then) intended act of parliament for registering plantation-slaves. He executes the task with considerable candour; lamenting that negro-labour should ever have been adopted in its present form, and censuring the inattention of the colonists to any thing in the shape of education: but maintaining, on the other hand, that the condition of the negroes is by no means uncomfortable, nor likely to be amended by the proposed enactment. Additional attention has of late years been given to the health of plantation-slaves, particularly by cultivating vegetables and fruits of the country for the purpose of diet; and we are told that,

'In our recently acquired and most valuable colony of Demerary, the quantity of provisions raised, of the bread kind, as plantains, yams, &c. far exceeds the consumption. The grounds set apart to the slaves themselves for the growth of these are almost without limit, as is the distribution of them when raised under the control of the master. The same, it may be concluded, will equally apply to the colonies of Berbice and Surinam. Nor are many of our islands, particularly those which have recently come into our possession, as Trinidad, &c. without ample resources of the same nature. It may not be improper to mention to you, that for some years a very increased share of regard has been paid to such important objects of cultivation in our older and most known possessions, as Barbadoes, Jamaica, &c.: — a spirit of improvement which, in justice, we are bound to place chiefly to the credit of the emigrant French from other colonies, particularly from that of St. Domingo. The bread-fruit tree grows with high and fruitful luxuriance in most of our colonies, but the plantain thriving equally well in the same situations, and its fruit being greatly preferred, and perhaps more palatable and nutritious, renders the product of the former but of secondary consequence. In situations not so fortunately gifted, the deficiency is made up, as far as possible, by foreign aid — in supplies of corn, flour, rice, &c. from Great Britain; and *occasionally* from the American States.'

The Captain then proceeds to enumerate a variety of particulars in the treatment of the negroes, both as to their extent of labour and as to the medical assistance afforded in case of illness: but, after every allowance for his temperate style of language, we must suspect him of leaning to the favourable side when he calls (p. 16.) the medical attendant of a plantation a 'physician,' and describes the negro-nurses as highly conversant with 'the practical uses of medicine.' Their knowlege, we apprehend, is nearly on a par with that of their masters; on whom Captain H., in his disposition for compliment, passes (p. 18.) an amusing panegyric. Such errors, however, are amply redeemed by the benevolence that dictates a recommendation of negro-schools on the plan of an abridged system of Bell or Lancaster; and by the indignant feeling expressed in the rejection of all proposals to employ European labourers on West-Indian properties.

'I am aware that there are many intelligent persons in this country, who entertain a belief, that the labour incidental to our colonies (in the event of its being removed altogether from the beings who now discharge it) might be accomplished by the surplus strength it could conveniently spare. And with such consideration, a reference is not unfrequently held to the capability of the more hardy Irish, Scotch, and Welch. Of the many theories that may have been raised on the subject, this must be pronounced the least likely to succeed. I am free to own to you, that rather than find such assistance at any time resorted to, I would cheerfully assent to the entire destruction or overthrow of these colonies, however interesting and valuable I may consider them; for, under such an arrangement, I must behold them as so many charnel-houses. In the most healthful, I stand convinced, that no European constitution or strength could, for any length of time, sustain a series of regular labour, subject, as such must be, to an unavoidable exposure to the intemperate heat, which, with insignificant variation, prevails in all.' —

'In such situations in our colonies as might be found the least exposed to any particular visitation of sickness, I rest under a full belief of the entire impossibility of acquiring aid from such hands. But in such as may not be so happily placed, the failure in this respect would appear to me as likely to be much more sudden, as well as complete. I speak of those, in the first degree, that may have been but recently, and perhaps but partially, brought under cultivation — amidst imperfect drainage and stagnant waters; with the baneful effects to European constitutions, in more than common measure arising from the action of a powerful sun on decayed vegetable substances, &c. From inconveniences like these, severe agues and fevers are inevitably found to follow; and I think we might look upon every property so circumstanced, that should have recourse to such means, as certain of becoming the seat of disease and death. And of properties so situated, numbers will be found in almost every colony; but in still greater proportion in the settlements which have recently come into our possession by conquest, &c., as Demerary and Berbice, on the continent; Trinidad, Tobago, St. Lucia, Dominica, &c., among the islands.' —

'I have not discovered, that the negroes generally on our plantations are the subjects of disease to which the white-population, in such situations, may not be equally liable: with this difference, however, that in all such as arise from the climate, or are of local character, the former are awaited by them under a greatly mitigated form. Since the abolition of the slave-trade, some disorders of African origin, and highly contagious, have almost disappeared; of which the most common, and by far the most fatal, was that named the *yaws*. With those of a *chronic* description, the more aged slaves are often found severely affected; and the *tetanus*, or *locked-jaw*, often proves fatal to many infants a few days after their birth.'

The pamphlet concludes with a picture of the revolting scenes of the African slave-trade; and with intreating the reader to discriminate between the real horrors of that which is now past, and some imaginary accusations relatively to that which is still maintained.

In point of style, we cannot congratulate the author on any improvement since our notice of his former book. Like others who have not thoroughly studied composition, he allows himself to be led away by the notion that a fact, or an argument, derives weight and cogency from being stated in a high-flown and artificial tone: so that he scarcely ever presents to us a plain idea in plain language, but all things must be diluted by circumlocution, or distorted into an indirect and unnatural shape. Nothing can be more exceptionable to a reader of taste, or more adverse to the clear and direct style of business; and, as Captain H. gives undoubted proofs of rectitude of feeling, we shall flatter ourselves with having to notice, in some subsequent production of his pen, his acquisition of or return to that style which may without impropriety be termed "rectitude of composition."

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *Peregrine in France.* A Lounger's Journal, in familiar Letters to his Friend. 8vo. pp. 98. Harper and Co.

After the long list of accounts in the shape of tours, journals, letters to friends, &c. &c. with which the public have been favoured during the last two or three years on the subject of France, it may still be worth while to bestow an hour on the little tract before us; —not that it contains much novelty, or possesses any striking characteristic, but because it gives a neat and clear summary of a considerable variety of matter. The writer appears to be a young medical officer attached to the army, in which capacity we are given to understand that he is still serving on the Continent. We have noticed some faults in point of diction, (as in p. 50. *much magnitude*,) and here and there an error of more consequence (as in p. 73. where he says that the French give the name of Fleurus to our Waterloo): but we are disposed to set down these as venial in a first essay, and to consider the author as likely to gain credit by his subsequent attempts, if prepared for the press with greater care and with the benefit of additional experience.

Art. 23. *Picture of Italy;* being a Guide to the Antiquities and Curiosities of that Classical and interesting Country: containing Sketches of Manners, Society, and Customs; and an Itinerary of Distances in Posts and English Miles, best Inns, &c. With a minute Description of Rome, Florence, Naples, and Venice, and their Environs. To which are prefixed, Directions to Travellers; and Dialogues in English, French, and Italian. By Henry Coxe, Esq. Illustrated with Maps, Plans, &c. 12mo. pp. 480. 14s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

To those travellers who may be desirous of making Italy a chief object of inquiry, Mr. Coxe has performed an acceptable service by presenting them with this manual: the plan of which comprehends a description of all that is most worthy of observation in the *grand tour* of that interesting country. Though small, and thus well adapted to the purpose of travelling, the volume furnishes sufficient instruction as to roads, inns, distances, modes of conveyance, and other particulars with which it is necessary for an inexperienced traveller to become acquainted; while the description of the several cities and large towns is drawn, as far as we have observed, with statistical accuracy: but on this subject, as well as on the topics of antiquities and the fine arts, the limits of the author's design have not allowed him to enter much into detail. Various useful hints on the prevailing manners and customs of the Continent are also dispersed through the work; the value of which is farther increased by the addition of a very tolerable map of the country, a large collection of dialogues in French, Italian, and English, and a few interesting and well executed plates.

Art. 24. *Gulzara, Princess of Persia;* or the Virgin-Queen: collected from the original Persian. 8vo. pp. 248. 10s. 6d. Boards. Souter. 1816.

It is pretended that this singular history owes its publication to the following circumstances. The editor, happening to converse one day with a Persian at Calcutta on the subject of Great Britain and Ireland, remarked to him that the presumptive heiress of those realms was a Princess; and that in Persia, he believed, the propriety of female-dominion would scarcely be intelligible. This the Persian denied; adding that he had lately read a work which stated that his country had, many centuries ago, been governed by a Queen with great glory, 'and now,' said he, 'that I think of it, I have the MS. in my possession.' It was accordingly produced, and the Persian began to read and expound it to his auditor; who was so struck with the peculiarities of the history, and with certain '*traces of resemblance, which shew men to be the same in every quarter of the world*,' that on a sudden he determined to enable his dear countrymen to share in his enjoyment. Being ignorant, however, of the Persian language, he found it in vain to attempt the figurative phraseology of the original, 'so he resolved to make himself master of the facts, and to marshal them in English in his own style.'

As we have not the authority of any *name* to give sanction to this statement, we can scarcely judge whether we should receive it as fiction or as truth; or venture an opinion as to the degree of favour with which it will be or ought to be treated by the public. Were it "a true bill," garbled and imperfect as it must undoubtedly be in its present shape, still all true lovers of oriental literature would be disposed to welcome it with open arms; while others of our countrymen, less learned in the decyphering of Asiatic hieroglyphics, might find amusement in the history of *Ali the Magnificent*, of *Abbas the Well-meaning*, and *Fadlallah the Pious*. At any rate, those whose minds are of a more ordinary cast, and who may be more naturally disposed "*risu diducere rictum*," would not turn over with disgust the pages of the history which 'Hussein son of Ahmed, heretofore keeper of the records of the mighty Shah of Persia, collected from the chronicles of his deceased father;'—and more especially those, whose motto is

> "*Ridiculum acri*
> *Fortius ac melius magnas plerumque secat res*,"

will be able to discover, with the editor, those '*traces of resemblance, which shew men to be the same in every quarter of the world*,' and to satisfactorily prove that the characters and the actions of the Kings, Queens, Princes, and Princesses of Persia and Tartary, in some former indeterminate age, may be clearly identified with those of the Kings, Queens, Princes, and Princesses of Great Britain and France in an age not very distant from the nineteenth century. We are, indeed, principally disposed to regard the whole as a *ruse de guerre*; and we shall only say farther of it that we have felt the greatest share of interest at the commencement, and that, as we proceeded in the work, the genius either of the Persian historian or his editor appeared to us gradually to decline.

Art. 25. *An Investigation of the Errors of all Writers on Annuities*, in their Valuation of Half-yearly and Quarterly Payments, including those of Sir Isaac Newton, Demoivre, Dr. Price, Mr. Morgan, Dr. Hutton, &c. &c.—With Tables, shewing the correct Values when Payments are made in less Periods than Yearly, and a Specimen of a Set of Tables on a new Principle, (now in the Press,) for the Valuation of Leases, Estates, Annuities, Church-livings, or any Income whatever. By William Rouse, Author of the Doctrine of Chances, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lackington.

Mr. Rouse sets out by explaining somewhat emphatically that there is a radical difference between his mode of calculating and that of his predecessors, the latter not having, he maintains, made an adequate allowance for the result of a very important point; viz. dividing the annual allowances for interest into quarterly or half-yearly payments. He then proceeds to enforce his reasons by a variety of arguments, into which it would much exceed our limits to follow him. Such discussions are of moment only to those whose situation leads them into a frequent investigation of accounts, or whose income will be materially affected by a change in the time and manner of the payments arising from the application of capital. To these we recommend not so much the perusal of the tract, the style of which is by no means inviting, as an inspection of the tables

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towards the end; where the eye can readily take in at one view what is much more conducive to the formation of a clear conclusion, than the study of a long series of previous rules.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 26. *Peace and Persecution incompatible with each other.* An Address on the Subject of the Persecution of the Protestants in the South of France; delivered in Worship Street, Finsbury Square, 18th January 1816, being the Thanksgiving Day appointed for the Restoration of Peace. With an Appendix, illustrative of the Subject. By John Evans, A.M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

On looking at the title-page of this publication, and finding it to be '*an Address*,' we expected to have been informed to whom and in what manner it was delivered; whether in the shape of a religious discourse or a pulpit-sermon, or whether it was a moral, a philosophical, or a political address. To these inquiries, the only answer that we could glean from the title was that it was 'An Address on the Persecution of the Protestants in France, and delivered at Worship-street, Finsbury-square.' The thesis, indeed, being taken from 1 Sam. xx. 21., and laid down in the form of an ordinary sermon-text, induced us to believe that it must have been delivered in a house of prayer; though the author's continued adherence to political and secular topics, and the very rare occurrence of religious observation or spiritual instruction, did not much tend to confirm this opinion. Citations from modern poets, in a discourse professedly religious, are not particularly indicative of a correct taste; and, if in any degree allowable, they should be always short and sententious, and used with a very sparing and cautious hand. Although we fully coincide in the author's sentiments on the subject of liberty of conscience, and on the impolitic principle of dictating the creed to which any man is to subscribe, yet we must refrain from complimenting him on the elegance or force of his language, or the general arrangement of his ideas. The observation, which Dean Swift had the humility to pass on his own discourses in the pulpit, may be applied in the present instance to our respectable old acquaintance Mr. Evans; namely, "*that he preached pamphlets.*"

Art. 27. *The Happiness of Great Britain;* preached at Newbury, Jan. 18. 1816, being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving. By John Kitcat. 8vo. 1s. Hunter.

In the commencement of this discourse, the author enters too minutely into the detail of those political occurrences which led to the late capitulation of Paris, and the final re-establishment of peace throughout Europe. In so categorical a style, indeed, is every circumstance laid down, that he appears to have considered his hearers as in complete ignorance of passing events. His account of Napoleon's invasion of the French kingdom, of all the minutiæ of the subsequent military operations, of the battle of Waterloo, &c., give the idea of his having taken up a volume of the Annual Register for 1815, and inflated some half-dozen of its pages into magnificent language. Though political subjects do not often sound well from the pulpit, the preacher may be required, on some occasions, not to pass them over in silence: undoubtedly, national prosperity should always awaken national gratitude, and that which is allowed to be a public duty can scarcely be enforced by too cogent means: but, whenever the short-lived honours of an earthly victory are allowed to take possession of too prominent a station, or are represented as any thing but the result of divine benevolence, we not only incur the risk of giving encouragement to national pride and prejudices, but are in imminent danger of losing the substance by grasping at the shadow, and preventing the view of that which is permanent and inestimable by the false glare of sublunary honours.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We thank *Amicus Veritatis* for his letter: he seems to deserve the appellation which his signature assumes; and we request him to believe that we shall always endeavour to merit the continuance of his confidence, and an association with him in the love and observance of this main principle of morality and criticism.

Our kind friend *J. H.* is too complimentary:—at least, he must excuse us on this ground for not printing his letter; which, indeed, is also too extensive and diffuse to admit of that application of it.

R. X. Y. is not only wrong in his reasoning, as we think, but is certainly erroneous in the facts on which he builds his argumentation. We decline to enter farther into disputation with him.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxxi. of the Monthly Review was published with our last Number on the first of February.

GENERAL INDEX.

In answer to the numerous inquiries and applications which have been made to us, respecting a new GENERAL INDEX, we have now to announce that this undertaking, comprizing the whole of the New Series of the Monthly Review, to the end of the year 1816, is in considerable forwardness, and will probably be put to the press in the approaching Spring. The plan of the former General Index will be observed: but some improvements will be adopted, and greater copiousness of reference be introduced, in the way of duplication, so as to render less likely any failure of search. It is calculated to form two very large volumes in octavo.

⁂ As this work is of a very expensive nature, Gentlemen who intend to be purchasers of it are requested to give their orders to their respective booksellers, or to our publisher, without delay, that some idea may be formed with regard to the number of copies that may be wanted. Many more than the demand is likely to require will not be printed, and the volumes can never again go to the press. The price, it is supposed, will be two guineas, which must be raised to non-subscribers, after the first day of June next, to two guineas and a half.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1817.

ART. I. *The Antiquities of Athens*, measured and delineated by James Stuart, F.R.S. and F.S.A. and Nicholas Revett, Painters and Architects. Vol. IV. Imperial folio. 7l. 7s. Boards. Taylor. 1816.

RATHER a singular fate, with respect both to delay and to ultimate accomplishment by so many different hands, has attended the superb work on the antiquities of Athens which was undertaken by Messrs. Stuart and Revett. So early as the year 1748, those gentlemen first issued proposals, at Rome, for its publication: but even their journey for the purpose of collecting materials for it did not commence till 1750; the first volume did not appear till 1762, under Mr. Stuart's superintendence; the second, though dated in 1787, was not given to the world till after his death in 1788, when it was edited by Mr. Newton; the third obtained no existence till 1794, when Mr. Revely became its literary man-midwife; and, after a farther lapse of twenty-two years, a fourth and last is presented to us (as we understand) by Mr. Woods.*

In the advertisement to the second volume, Mr. Stuart's intention that the whole should be completed by a third was distinctly notified; and it is evident from the preface to the fourth, now before us, that it has been composed only of the gleanings of the author's portfolio. On this subject, however, we shall quote the editor's words:

> 'In undertaking to give to the world a fourth volume of the Antiquities of Athens, I feel no small degree of diffidence, both from the high and established reputation of what has been already published, and from the nature of the materials intrusted to my care. I am anxious that this fourth volume should not appear unworthy of the foregoing; but am also aware that it can contain nothing equal to some of the fine specimens of Grecian art detailed in the former volumes; and I also fear that some blame may possibly attach to the publication of a part, whose subjects are in general

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* For Vol. ii., See M.R. (Old Series) Vol. xxviii. p. 302.: for Vol. ii. M.R. (New Series,) Vol. ii. p. 316.; and for Vol. iii., M.R. Vol. xvii. p. 45. and 161.

extremely different from the preceding; and many of which are connected with Athens, only by the circumstance of having been visited and drawn by Stuart and Rivett * on the same journey. Yet the materials are altogether far too interesting to be suppressed, and the observations of the artists are too closely connected with the subjects of the former volumes (not all Athenian) to form a separate work. We have also ample proof that it was the intention of the authors to publish them unitedly; indeed in some of the early printed proposals the antiquities of Pola are mentioned as the subject of the second volume.'

It certainly was understood, from the preface to Vol. i., that the travellers, having been detained at Venice on their route to Greece, had occupied their time in visiting Pola, and had been much gratified by an inspection of the ruins of the Amphitheatre and other remains of antiquity at that place: but the annunciation in Vol. ii., which we have just mentioned, that a third volume, *then in great forwardness*, would be the completion of the undertaking, leaves no room for supposing that these or any other *episodical* materials would have been allowed by Mr. Stuart to make a part of his "Antiquities of Athens." We cannot believe, indeed, that he would have injured the character of so justly celebrated a work by publishing, under its title, a combination of such materials as are now made to form its fourth volume; and, after the modest doubts and fears which are expressed by its editor, in the passage above quoted, we are sorry to be obliged to declare our opinion that it exhibits a sad decline, both in matter and in execution, from the noble specimen of each which was afforded in the first volume. After this general statement, however, we shall proceed to take notice of the several portions of the book: but we would beg leave previously to remark, with reference to the Topography of Athens, that this subject, which had been beset with difficulties, misconceptions, and errors, was investigated in our xviith Vol. N. S., (when we reported Vol. iii. of the *Antiquities,*) and, as we believe we may say, has since become better understood. We may refer to pages 48—57., and 163—165., for the observations to which we allude.

The preface contains extracts from a MS. journal by Mr. Stuart, relating his progress from Venice to Athens, several excursions from that antient capital, and his return to England; from which we may make a few amusing citations. Some popular commotions having taken place at Athens in 1753, Mr. S. and his companion were advised to quit it for a time, and accordingly embarked for Smyrna. Here they remained till the tumults subsided; and, says the writer,

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* Mr. Revett's name is thus mis-spelt in various places. — *Rev.*

' "On Saturday, June 2. 1753, we took our departure from Smyrna, on board a Hydriot boat, having agreed to pay thirty piastres for our passage to Mycone, and thirty-three piastres from thence to Athens. That night we anchored under the castle of Smyrna, and the following in a little bay in the Phocian territory. We weighed before day-light on the fourth, and anchored before noon off Scio, where the plague then raged. We dined and supped at Thimiana, and sailed in the night to Mycone, whence we proceeded to Delos, and remained in that island till the eleventh; but the wind and rain very much impeded my geographical observations. We returned to Mycone; and at ten in the evening of the same day sailed for Naxia. Here we arrived on the twelfth, and visited what is called the gate of Bacchus. This is a door-case, the only remaining fragment of the Temple of Bacchus; and this was so ruined, that it did not furnish a moulding which we could copy. At this place we saw an old Frenchman, who had been with Charles the Twelfth of Sweden when he was besieged by the Turks; he enjoyed a pension from the Porte. On the evening of the thirteenth we arrived at Paros, where are several fragments of buildings, chiefly Doric, several inscriptions, and some mouldings which we had not met with before; but what excited most our curiosity was the quarry at Hagio Minas, especially as we had heard that a basso-relievo, cut on the solid rock, was to be seen there that merited our attention, nor were we disappointed; for though it has never been highly finished, and has suffered by time and ill-usage, and the subject seems inexplicable, there is a degree of elegance and grace in some of the figures that seems to be almost the effect of chance, and to have been formed in part by the splitting of the marble, particularly that which resembles a Silenus, with the Syrinx in his hand; but where these accidents have not been so favourable to the formation of the figures, they have been more or less helped by the sculptor's chissel, which has completed the forms which the irregularity of the marble had suggested to the imagination.

' "This sculpture brought to my mind a passage in Pliny *, where he says, 'but in the quarry of the Parians they relate a wonderful thing; the wedges having separated a block of marble, the image of Silenus was found existing in it.' I have therefore given a print of it (chap. vi. pl. 5. of this volume,) as a probable comment on the text of Pliny.

' "From Paros we crossed over a little channel to Antiparos, and gratified our curiosity with a sight of that wonderful grotto, which gives celebrity to the island; but the master of our bark, in haste to finish his voyage, did not permit us to stay long enough

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' * *Sed in Pariorum (lapicidinis) mirabile proditur, gleba lapidis unius cuneis dividentium soluta, imaginem Sileni exstetisse.* Plin. Hist. Nat. Lib. xxxvi. c. 5.'

to make a drawing of it. We left Paros on the eighteenth, and soon after arrived at Athens." '

Other disturbances arose while the travellers were at Athens; and one of a private nature, which unfortunately implicated them, interrupted their peaceable and scientific pursuits. The British Consul, a Greek, with whom they lodged, made an unreasonable pecuniary demand on them; and, in the course of argumentation, he behaved with so much insolence that Mr. Stuart knocked him down. The Consul appealed to the Archbishop for redress, and at last went to Constantinople; whither Mr. S. also found it necessary to resort, in order to make his own representations to the British ambassador, Sir James Porter. He proceeded in company with the principal Athenian Aga, and his brother; who, with a numerous retinue, were going to the Grand Signor's court to solicit for themselves the government of Athens. Having travelled five days, Mr. S. thus continues:

' " We left Larissa two hours before day on the twenty-sixth; and as we advanced, observed Olympus covered with snow appearing over the lower hills. We breakfasted at a solitary house called Baba. On entering Larissa, we had to ford a pretty wide river, of which we saw no more until we came to the entrance of the Vale of Tempe, where it appears about as large as the Arno at Florence, but somewhat more rapid; however it does not flow with equal velocity, nor observe an equal breadth in its course through the valley; for it is sometimes broad and perfectly gentle, and every where keeps nearer to Ossa than to Olympus. The rocks which border this valley on both sides are perpendicular to a great height, and have many caverns in them. The tops of the precipices on each side are beautifully fringed with trees. The greatest breadth is no where a quarter of a mile, and generally much less than half that space. Between the river and the foot of Olympus are several clumps of large trees, which I took to be oaks *, and all the ground between the mountains and the river was covered on both sides with shrubs, beneath which the ground was clothed thick with a great variety of herbage. Beautiful as this vale is, it was entirely deserted; we neither saw a habitation nor met a living creature in it after we had left the house where we breakfasted.

' " When we came to the end of this valley, and the view was no longer confined by the mountains on each side, a prospect the most enchanting that can be imagined was opened to us. A fine plain, through which the river meandered with a broader surface and a gentler course, lay immediately beneath us; over the river at no great distance appeared a bridge. The plain was diversified with houses and trees intermixed, beyond which, at the distance of four or five miles, we had a view of the broad Thermaic gulf; the

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' * These are said to be Oriental planes.'

hilly country of Cassandra on the opposite shore; and at a still greater distance Mount Athos terminated the prospect. On the twenty-seventh we travelled through a marshy country, and, leaving Salonica at a small distance to the right, proceeded about twelve miles farther to a village called Langathia. Here an untoward accident * obliged me to quit my conductors, and after some

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' * There are two papers containing some account of this untoward accident, both in the same hand, which I believe to be Stuart's; but unfortunately so large a piece has been torn out of one that but little can be made out by the remainder; and something has been spilt upon the other which has nearly discharged the ink.

' The first of these has been a copy of a letter to Sir James Porter; the latter appears also to have been a letter, and this has contained the story much more in detail; there is also a reference to it in the copy of a letter to Sir James Porter, dated Salonica, December 5. 1753. From these I have extracted and compiled the following narrative, except the latter part, which is supplied from a verbal relation of Stuart to the Bishop of Dromore, and by him repeated to Mr. Caldwell, who printed it.

' "I was not at all pleased with the conduct of the Turks soon after leaving Athens; but their insulting actions grew more intolerable as we proceeded. At Ortho, near Salonica, I got for the first time a tolerable horse, for which the Vaywode cursed me and the hostler, whom he threatened to whip. I modestly offered to change my horse for another; an offer which he caught with a sort of boisterous transport: this determined me to quit his company the first opportunity; and being arrived in the evening at Langathia, about twelve or fourteen miles from Salonica, I began to bargain for a good easy horse. On this the Vaywode began to abuse the ostler at the last stage, telling the Turks, that the rascal had mounted an Infidel like a Mussulman, and turning to the master of the chan, inquired for his worst horses, and made him mount one which he recommended as a very hard trotter. Seeing the pace he went, he cried out with a laugh, — *Tau maum*, ' this just does.' On this I feigned a head-ache and fever, and desired to be left behind. Achmet then exclaimed to his brother, ' the rascal has understood us;' and addressing himself to a Hadgee who was likewise in the chan, said something to him about me, repeating the word *giaour;* whatever the meaning was, the Hadgee came into his scheme, and staid behind to execute it. However, at my request, they left behind a *chochadar* to conduct me by sea the remainder of the way; I was anxious to obtain a lodging in another house but could not succeed. I was then conducted to an inner room, where I placed my luggage about me, and prepared myself to sleep. Meanwhile the chochadar went to the Hadgee, with whom he had a long conversation in Turkish, drinking freely together; but as the chochadar did not express himself in Turkish with the same facility as in Greek, he slipped out, perhaps some difficulties to return to Salonica, where Mr. Revett afterwards joined me, and where we were received with the most

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perhaps unconsciously, these words; 'they are two young vigorous fellows; it is best to let them sleep first. I will go and cajole them about their voyage to Salonica and their caic;' which he accordingly did. I should have observed, that the master of the chan was a very terrible fellow, and that the Hadgee Achmet had a long private conference with him and the chochadar. I continued to feign sickness, and while I was pretending to sleep, a janizary came in; he was soon joined by a boy about thirteen years old; who, talking about me, made signs with his hand on his neck as if he would cut off his head and throw it into the ashes behind the fire, on which the janizary silenced him, and told him I was looking full on him; and presently asked me, if I understood Turkish, to which I answered no, and he appeared satisfied. I resolved to escape, but found it difficult to execute. Pretending to have an occasion out of doors, I called the chochadar to accompany me, and led him as far as I could from the house under that pretence. I then told him of my apprehensions, and offered him one hundred piastres to accompany me to Salonica, increasing my price to five hundred chequins, but he would not be bribed. 'You promise me great things, but when you get me you will hang me.'

' " This increased my apprehensions, and I left him, knowing that he would not cry out as I was armed and he was not. I walked on, but did not get above half a mile from the town, and at first hid myself among some reeds on the banks of a small river; but fearing I had been observed, I afterwards left the reeds, and lay down among some bushes and brambles which were spread about to a great extent. After some time, I was pursued by at least ten different parties with lighted torches; they traced my foot-steps for some time, and searched all over the reeds; that not succeeding, they tried among the brambles; being foiled there also, they lighted fires at intervals with bundled sticks all round the boundary of the thicket, so that it was impossible for me to escape without being observed: but Providence protected me; somewhat more than an hour before day-break a heavy rain came on, which extinguished the fires, and obliged the Turks to return to the village. When I perceived that all was quiet I got up, and by searching about soon gained the principal road, disguising myself by tying my sash about my head and throwing off my upper garment, which was scarlet. At day-break I found myself on a rising ground, with a considerable town in view just before me. I took a back road, to avoid passing through the street, and proceeded some way further without being observed; but seeing a man ploughing, and being sensible that he must see me when he turned his plough, I bethought myself of counterfeiting folly, as the Turks regard idiots with great veneration. This scheme succeeded; and soon after meeting with two Epirotes, I put myself under their protection to Salonica." '

cordial hospitality by Mr. Paradise, the Consul. The plague breaking out soon after, and fresh obstacles arising, we thought it more prudent to return home with the drawings we already had, than to risk the whole in attempting to gain more. After therefore making drawings of some antiquities at Salonica, we left that city on the 20th of April, 1754, for Smyrna, in order to take our passage thence to England." '

After some memoranda relative to Bœotia, we come to memoirs of Messrs. Stuart and Revett, supplied by friends of the respective families.

James Stuart was born in Creed-lane, Ludgate-street, London, in 1713, but his father was a native of Scotland, and a mariner of humble station, and his mother was a native of Wales. Though his parents were poor, they were of good character, and gave him the best education which their power allowed; and the father's death leaving his four children destitute, James exerted his talents for drawing, in support of them and of his mother. He was employed by Goupy in designing and painting fans, but did not thus restrict his efforts, occupying his time also in studying Greek and Latin, anatomy, geometry, and other sciences. His desire of farther improvement by travel induced him to set off, though poorly stocked with money, on a pedestrian tour to Rome; stopping occasionally on his route to exercise his pencil for the renovation of his purse. At Rome he formed his acquaintance with Mr. Revett; and here also, it is said in the *present* biography, 'he appears to have *obtained*' (or *improved*) 'his knowlege of Latin and Greek at the College of the Propaganda.' He displayed these acquirements in a Latin work which he published at the expence of the Pope, in 1750, intitled "*De Obelesco Cæsaris Augusti, Campo Martis nuperrime effoso, Epistola, Jacobi Stuart, Angli, ad Carolum Wentworth, Comitem de Malton;*" and 'which procured for him the honour of being presented to his Holiness, a distinction, perhaps, never before conferred on an artist who was a Protestant.' Advancing to the period of his design to record the Antiquities of Athens, the biographer says:

> 'It cannot now be discovered what branch of the art of painting Stuart practised to support himself during the six or seven years of his residence in Italy, before he engaged in this undertaking; but it is certain that during that time he acquired all the literary knowledge which he has displayed in the work, and an acquaintance with those sciences, which enabled him afterward to engage practically in the profession of an architect.
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> 'On the publication of the first volume, the knowledge of Grecian art burst upon the public in all its splendour; its author acquired the surname of Athenian *par excellence;* was chosen a

member of the Royal Society and Society of Antiquaries; and became afterwards a member of the Dilletanti Society: he acquired the patronage of many noble families in his profession of an architect, and had as much employment as he chose to accept: as a designer he was frequently applied to, on subjects not merely architectural, when any thing peculiarly elegant was required; of these I shall only mention the medals that were struck to commemorate Lord Clive's victory at Plassey, the taking of Guadaloupe, the battle of Minden, and the medal given by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. all of which are conceived in the purest style of Grecian art; many others probably exist of which the present writer has no knowlege. If Mr. Stuart had chosen to make a large fortune, he had more favourable opportunities of doing so than most men in his profession; he had introduced into Britain the knowledge of a style of art, which, though among the oldest in existence, was new to this country, and every person of good taste admired and was willing to adopt it; but, having acquired a competence by other means, he soon withdrew from the practice of his profession to enjoy the society of his friends, and the comforts of his family, in the way that was most congenial to his feelings and habits of life.

'Lord Anson, who had early patronised Stuart, procured for him the place of Surveyor to Greenwich Hospital, which being almost a sinecure, and the income considerable, added to the property he had already acquired, and placed him in a state of independence equal to his wishes.'—

'Mr. Stuart was twice married; by his first wife he had one son who died at an early age; by his second he had five children, one of which died a short time before himself; his eldest daughter died of a decline some years afterwards; his eldest son was in the navy, and died in the year 1800; the youngest son is in the same profession, and has attained to the rank of lieutenant, and the youngest daughter is still living.

'Mr. Stuart died Feb. 2. 1788, in the 75th year of his age, and was buried in the vault of the church of St. Martin's in the Fields.'—

'Modern architects have generally engraved and published their designs for the principal buildings they have erected; this practice is not only honourable to themselves, but advantageous to the public, disseminating at once both a knowledge of the art, and of the talents of the artist. It is to be regretted that Stuart did not adopt this practice; on the contrary, he neglected his own designs; and it is not therefore possible at this distance of time to give an accurate list of his works: but among various others the following may be named; Lord Anson's House in St. James's Square, which is believed to be the first building erected in England of real Grecian architecture; Belvidere, Lord Eardley's seat, near Erith, Kent; Mrs. Montagu's house, Portman-square; the Chapel and the Infirmary at Greenwich Hospital; a Triumphal Arch; the Octagon Temple of the Winds and other buildings at Shuckburgh, the seat of Lord Anson in Staffordshire; and some parts of the interior of Lord Spencer's house in St. James's Place.'

The biography of Mr. Stuart is closed by some remarks on his character as an artist; in which little appears respecting his talents as a painter, but his fame is rested on his attainments as an architect, and on the evidence of these abilities which his great work proudly manifests. It is observed that to him we owe our knowlege of Grecian architecture; and that, if the remains of Athens should entirely perish, and 'it *should so happen* that any people or potentate should have spirit, inclination, and power to rebuild them, his work will enable them to do so, and thus preserve them to the end of time.'

From the brief memoirs of Mr. Revett, which follow, we learn that he was the second son of John Revett, Esq. of Brandeston Hall, near Framlingham, in Suffolk, and was born there about 1721; that he left England for Italy in 1742, and studied painting at Rome, where he formed his intimacy with Mr. Stuart; and that with him, as we have already seen, he went to Athens in 1751. From his return to England till 1764, nothing is distinctly known of his pursuits: but it is supposed that he was occupied in making some of the drawings for the Antiquities of Athens. In 1764, he engaged in a voyage, at the expence of the Dilettanti Society, of which the object was to delineate the antiquities of Ionia, and two years were thus passed. 'An account of this journey has been published by Dr. Chandler; and the principal objects of architecture compose the two volumes of the Ionian Antiquities, except those at Athens, part of which have already been published in the second and third volumes of the Antiquities of Athens; and the plates of the Sculpture of the Parthenon from the drawings of Mr. Pars make part of the present volume.' The events of the long interval from 1766 to 1804, when Mr. R. died at the advanced age of 84, are no otherwise described than by saying that, after his return, he 'seems to have spent his time in preparing the drawings for publication, and in superintending some works of architecture,' and that 'he was by no means in easy circumstances.' Among the edifices which he designed, are enumerated, at Lord Le Despencer's, West Wycomb, the Eastern and Western Porticos, the Temple near the latter, the Temple of Flora, and the Temple in the Island: the Church at Ayot, St. Lawrence, in Hertfordshire; and the Portico to the Eastern Front of Standlinch, in Wiltshire, the seat of James Dawkins, Esq.

In the introductory remarks on the antiquities of Pola, Mr. Stuart observes:

> 'The excursion we made to Pola is mentioned in the preface to the first volume, with the motives that induced us to visit that ancient city. Palladio enumerates and praises the antiquities he saw there. On our arrival we had the mortification to find that the

theatre, one of the principal objects of our curiosity, had been a long time since utterly demolished; but the amphitheatre, the arch of the Sergii, and the Temples, still remained, to justify that illustrious artist in the commendation he has bestowed on them, and the intention he had to give descriptions of them to the public.

'Those afforded us employment for three months, during which time we detected several mistakes of former authors, and observed various particulars that had escaped their notice.'

Chapter I., on the Amphitheatre of Pola, which 'was not improbably built by Dioclesian, or Maximin,' contains little more than a description of the fourteen plates which give views, plans, elevations, sections, and mouldings of this ruin. It was a rusticated building, rudely finished; in form, an ellipsis, of which the longest diameter lies nearly north and south, measuring 436 feet, 6 inches; its shortest, 346 feet, 2 inches; and its height, in the part now left most perfect, is 97 feet. As it is altogether of a second-rate class, both in magnitude and style, and has been represented in former publications, we need not now enter into detailed observations respecting it.

Chapter II. refers with equal brevity to the Temple of Rome and Augustus at Pola, and explains 10 plates of that building. We regret to say that the engraving of several of these plates is such as would be appropriate only in a work of the most inferior nature and price.

Of a similar character is Chapter III., on the Arch of the Sergii at Pola; and its 10 plates merit little more encomium. A large division of the work then follows, constituting chapter IV., and illustrated by 34 engravings of Sculpture of the Parthenon; collected not merely from the labours of Messrs. Stuart and Revett, but also from various other sources, which are thus announced. 'Mr. Stuart contented himself (vol. ii. p. 12.) with giving so much of the sculpture of the frieze of this temple as was necessary to exhibit the different dresses and ornaments of the figures, but the whole of it is so highly interesting, that it was thought advisable to engrave for this volume all that remained unpublished, of which drawings had been made either by Mr. Stuart or Mr. Pars. The sketches of the latter artist are very beautiful.' It might be inferred from this statement that many of the drawings at least were made by Stuart and Revett: but the first five plates are taken from the well-known delineations at Paris of the Sculpture in the Pediments, supposed to have been copied in 1683: four others are without any draughtsman's name; and all the rest are made from drawings of Pars. The apparent intention of this great portion of the volume, not being the work of

Stuart and Revett, must be deemed to be the attraction which it may obtain by exhibiting much of the sculpture that has of late become a subject of interest in England under the denomination of the Elgin Collection: but we cannot coincide in any views which are directed to enlarge the publication and to procure notice for it at the expence of thus "travelling out of the record," the title declaring it to exhibit "The Antiquities of Athens measured and delineated by James Stuart and Nich. Revett." According to this mode of proceeding, a small portion only might in other cases be the work of the ostensible author; and the public might be made to pay for a large body of matter collected from sources of which they had no previous knowlege, and in which therefore they had placed no previous confidence. These plates, with additions, and the Report of the Parliamentary Committee on the subject of the Elgin Collection, are also published in a separate volume, at the price of five guineas.

Chap. V. describes 11 plates formed from sketches and memoranda of Mr. Stuart, relative to antiquities on the Continent of Greece. The first seven are additions to or corrections of objects which appeared in the former volumes, on the ruins at Athens and in its neighbourhood; and the remainder exhibit architectural fragments and views in other parts.

'Fragments collected in the Greek Islands' form the subject of the VIth and last Chapter, accompanied by seven plates. Of the 5th, representing a sculpture in the quarries at Paros, which is very interesting, we have this account:

> 'Besides the principal figure of Silenus in this piece of sculpture, there are perhaps a Cybele, an Atys, and three figures of Hours or Graces; the rest seem to be the mere offspring of the sculptor's imagination.
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> 'The reader will find a further account of this production in p. ix. of the preface. Tournefort, who observed it in his voyage to the Levant, gives the following description of it:
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> '"They carried us three miles from the castle to see some ancient quarries, where there is nothing left but a few trenches all covered with broken bits and rubbish of the stone, as fresh as if they had been lately worked: mandrake and false dittany grow every where about them. The most ancient quarries in the country are about a mile further, above the mill belonging to the monastery of St. Minas. In one of those quarries is an antique basso-relievo, wrought upon the native rock itself, which in that place presents naturally an almost perpendicular face at the bottom of a great cavern, now used for a sheep-fold, from whence it is probable they got this fine marble by the light of lamps. The mountain where this cavern stands is perhaps the Mount Marpesus, mentioned by Servius, and Stephens the geographer.

'"This basso-relievo is four feet long, and its greatest height is two feet five inches; the bottom of it is cut level; the top is irregular, because the performer fitted it to the figure of the rock. Though this work has been very ill handled by time, it nevertheless appears to be a kind of Bacchanal, or if you will a country-wedding, containing twenty-nine figures, tolerably well designed, but ill put together. Of twenty of these figures, which are upon a line, the six biggest are seventeen inches tall: they represent nymphs dancing a sort of brawl. There is another sitting on the left-hand, that seems to draw back, though pressed to dance. Among these figures appears the head of a satyr, with a long beard, laughing violently.

'"On the right are placed twelve smaller figures, which seem merely to represent spectators. Bacchus sits quite at the top of the basso-relievo, with ass's ears, and a huge round belly, surrounded with figures, in several attitudes; they all seem perfectly merry, especially a satyr that stands in the front, with ears and horns like a bull. The heads of this piece were never finished. It appears to have been the whim of some carver, who diverted himself with ornamenting his marble, and who wrote at the bottom of his basso-relievo

ΑΔΑΜΑΣ
ΟΔΡΥΣΗΣ
ΝΥΜΦΑΙΣ

'"Adamas Odryses reared this monument to the maidens of the country; who anciently were called nymphs, as Diodorus Siculus informs us; and Barthius proves pretty clearly, that this name was peculiarly appropriated to those that were not married."'

The volume is terminated by 'Observations with Corrections on the three first Volumes of the Antiquities of Athens,' from the pen of Mr. Revett, and by a brief index to the whole work.

ART. II. *Travels in Poland, Austria, Saxony, Bavaria, and the Tyrol,* in the Years 1807 and 1808; in a Series of Letters to a Friend. By Baron D'Uklanski. 12mo. pp. 243. 5s. 6d. Boards. Souter.

THE writer of this little volume is one of the many individuals whom the successive wars of Bonaparte drove from their homes, and forced to seek in other countries the means of recovering their losses, or of procuring a temporary oblivion of their cares. Without giving any minute account of himself, or of the situation of his landed property, the Baron apprizes his readers that the latter was situated in the part of Poland which was laid waste by the hostilities of the French and Russians in 1806 and 1807; and that he quitted it in the midst of those disorders to reside some time at Warsaw, but left that city in the early part of the last-mentioned year in order to travel in Austria, Saxony, Bavaria, and eventually in Italy. The various observations occurring in the course of this tour are communicated in the shape of letters to a female friend, of whom we are told nothing but that she bears the promising name of *Constance*, although she leaves the reader without any evidence of her punctuality, the Baron being the only letter-writer in the book. He puts his remarks together with little skill in composition, but with considerable attention to impartiality and fidelity. His range of observation altogether was extensive: but, as Saxony and Bavaria engaged comparatively little of his notice, we shall give our chief attention to the passages descriptive of Poland and the Tyrol.

Our last account of the manners and condition of the Poles was contained in our report (M. R. Vol. lix.) of the *Tableau de la Pologne*, by M. *Malthe Brun*, and was such, we believe, as to startle those of our readers whose estimate of Poland had been formed on the inveteracy with which the French and the Russians contended for its possession. So far from proving an accession of political power to so distant a master as Bonaparte, there seems little reason to doubt that Poland would have been a drain on his treasury and a ruinous absorbent of his military means; and Baron d'Uklanski could scarcely fail to be of this opinion when he committed to paper the following sketch of *Polish manners*:

'The Polish *nobleman*'s residence is, in general, a house of timber, with two rooms; one of them answering the double purpose of a kitchen and place for the servants, and the other of parlour, dining-room, and bed-chamber, for the gentleman. Dogs, cats, pigs, and geese, live here, with their master, peaceably together. When a Sarmatian of this description is visited by a stranger, the first thing offered him is a glass of brandy; another dram is taken to whet the appetite immediately before dinner, and after it the dose is repeated to help digestion. The table is spread with a cloth, which hardly resembles table-linen, and the disgusting stains thereon show clearly how little washing is used in Poland. The furniture consists of a bed, without curtains, a rotten settee, and two chairs, and, in deficiency of a sopha, the bed is drawn to the table, or the table to the bed, and on it the guests are seated. They know no such things as napkins; one knife serves two masters; and greasy spoons, of lead, glue themselves to your lips. Instead of grates, their fire-places are provided with low hearths, on which the wood is piled up; and from the chimney is suspended, by a chain, a copper, which contains boiling water. When a dish is taken from the table, a dirty clown, who, with a mop in his hand, officiates as scullion, cleans the plates in sight of the strangers, by dipping his rag-brush in the copper and passing it over them, and then ranges the pewter on the hearth, which is buried under ashes, the guests waiting until this operation is performed. If the brush does not answer the purpose, or ashes stick to the plates, the dirty fellow grasps the corner of his woollen coat, in Poland called *zhupan*, and gives them the necessary polish. Broth, vegetables, and roast-meat, are, without distinction, served up in deep tin tureens; flat dishes are seldom seen, and the stranger's appetite must be craving if it can induce him to taste the tough cow-flesh which usurps the place of beef. For drink, you are first presented with beer, a disgusting mixture of barley and water. One large pitcher serves the whole company, and many a Pole swallows this miserable beverage by pailfuls.—

'Wine comes for the dessert; you may easily guess of what sort. There is but one glass on the table, and that without a foot; the host, therefore, on giving out a toast, holds the glass in his hand till he has drunk, for stand it cannot. He then hands it to his neighbour, this to a third, and so on, every one pledging till the glass has gone round, and if the stranger wishes not to offend against the etiquette of the country, he must take the glass from the hand of the last and drink, in mark of acknowledgment, to the health of the whole company. The glass is then placed on its head, till a thirsty throat releases it from that uneasy posture, which figuratively denotes the state of drunkenness. In fashionable houses, decanters of beer are served up also, but they are usually passed by, the company indemnifying themselves with wine of various sorts, which flows freely.

'No sooner is the broth-bowl removed than the toasts begin, and the bumpers grow larger at every round, often succeeding each other to the number of twelve, of which the last is usually of a monstrous size. At Studzieniec, twenty miles beyond Lowicz, the gentleman of the house chose to drink my health out of a cup which held two pints of Hungary wine; standing, he swallowed this brimmer at a draught; and, to my utter astonishment, upwards of thirty persons present at table followed his example.

'After dinner, coffee is presented; my stomach always turns whenever I think of the beverage of succory and beans which is usually given. The guests are honoured with cups; the family drink from glasses, as in Italy. With wealthy people, on the other hand, the coffee is excellent; although sometimes made so strong as to become disgusting.'

Every thing else is in harmony with this curious picture. The inns of Poland are miserable timber-huts, kept by Jews, who exemplify their traditional reputation for filth, and deal in nothing but wretched brandy and muddy beer; while private dwellings are equally deficient in point of cleanliness, it being almost impracticable for a foreigner to enjoy any where a comfortable night's rest, on account of the vermin. At the same time, the expence in the house of a Polish grandee is enormous; in consequence not so much of the style in which he lives, as of the extraordinary waste caused by his own ignorance and the carelessness of the servants. Drinking to excess is still as fashionable here among the higher ranks as ever it was in Ireland or Scotland in the rude days of our forefathers; the nobleman intoxicating himself with wine and *liqueurs*, and the trader or farmer with brandy. If such be the habits of the classes on whom the success of cultivation materially depends, we need not be surprized that the husbandry of Poland is still in a very backward state. Let us hear the Baron's representation of *Polish Agriculture*.

'The manner of rendering the soil productive is in Poland peculiar to itself. When they begin to clear the land, if strong trees stand in their way, they content themselves with stabbing the underwood, making incisions in the bark of the timber at the height of three feet, to prevent its roots from drawing nourishment from the ground. The land, being cleared in this manner, is only once broken, and then sown; the plough, however, cannot enter deep into the ground, because of the roots, and the work is, of course, done superficially. The trees, besides, begin soon to dry, and, losing the support of their roots, tumble down with the first high wind, and nobody thinks of removing the wind-fall from the spot. In the forests the peasants burn tar and charcoal; and, where there is oak, beech, birch, and other kinds of hard wood, they convert them into potash, and wantonly waste the timber.

'Their cattle are wretched, the cows being little taller than a goat. They give an exceedingly small quantity of milk, being fed on undrained meadows, where only coarse and acid grass is produced. In winter they fare still worse, not being allowed any thing else but lashed straw; so that fifty cows give sometimes scarcely six quarts of milk, which is poor at the same time. They are in general farmed out to Jews, who on an average pay sixteen shillings per head, and take the calves into the bargain; but even this small rent is seldom settled, the cow-keeper frequently running away at the end of the year.'—

'The Polish bridges consist of saplings ranged together, without being peeled or squared. Their very tops are sometimes not lopped off, projecting both ways in unequal lengths. To pass over them in heavy carriages is always dangerous. You remember the dreadful accident which we met with in our return home from Szyrnunow; how I trembled for your safety on seeing, by the light of the moon, the middle arch give way, and the leaders tumble into the river. Had not my coachman been so resolute as to arrest the wheel-horses, with all his strength, that would have proved a very melancholy night to us.'

The administration of justice in Poland is on a most defective, or to speak accurately on a most iniquitous footing; perjury being quite common among witnesses, and the judges as much habituated to trespass with the juice of the grape as their untitled and unlearned countrymen. Hence the enactment, in a former age, of a very proper and indeed necessary regulation, that no "decisions should be valid if delivered after dinner." One great source of corruption was the distribution of money to the voters at the public election of the sovereign. The possession of a single acre of land sufficed to give a title to vote, and on every occasion of this nature a host of venal adventurers poured into Warsaw; who, being unable to defray their own maintenance, were supported and even feasted by a political leader, and he expended on them the sums received from the candidates for the crown. The latter proving often insufficient, the wholesale intriguers were led to mortgage their estates at usurious interest; and, as the custom of the country is to give the mortgagee immediate possession of the property, it often happened that the plantations were wasted, and the cottagers or bondsmen turned out of doors and dispersed. It is a curious fact that it was not until after the partition of Poland in 1772 that agriculture was successfully cultivated, or that any considerable rise took place in the value of the land. It was then only that law could be said to be introduced into the country, for in the Polish code a peasant was formerly placed on a level with the cattle; his lord, in putting him to death, incurring a penalty of only three pounds sterling, though the commoner who had presumed to give a nobleman a blow with a cane was forced to expiate his offence with his blood. The commencement of war, or the occupancy in any way of the public force, was the signal of anarchy and plunder in this distracted country. It was not unusual to break into a *château* in the day-time, and to strip it of its furniture and stock of clothes; while to rob the chest of the receiver-general of the district was an exploit in which the first gentlemen of the neighbourhood had no scruple to participate. Baron D'Uklanski is thus amply justified in asking (p. 49.) how it ever could enter into the plans of Bonaparte, or into the calculation of any enlightened politician, to make the Poles an independent nation. — He gives us these statements respecting the *Political Condition of Poland.*

'Their understanding must ripen before they can be released from guardianship; at present they are nationally incapable. This mental darkness is easily accounted for: in Poland they know nothing of schools *; the people there grow up as bountiful Nature has formed them. One is astonished at seeing fine ladies,

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'* The Prussian government was just on the eve of establishing a number of schools in every department, when the last war with France broke out and defeated the paternal care of the King. The sovereign of Saxony, however, adopted the plan in part, and a few schools have been established since the Duchy of Warsaw fell to his share.'

in fashionable dresses, put crosses to a letter or a deed, instead of their signature; and yet Nature has lavished, on the Polish women, talents, graces, and charms. Most of the nobles can neither read nor write; but a rusty sabre, and a brace of pistols, you are sure to find with them. Such a fellow is to be trained to the military profession like a horse, that is — he must be made to swim, curry, wipe, dress, harness, and obey the word of command, with as little reference to mind as possible. Nothing was so ridiculous as the national guards; they were all noblemen, who formed themselves into a body at Lenczyc in the beginning of the last war. Fellows with uncombed hair, beards unshaven, and dirty hands and faces, were seated on rough peasant-horses, their saddles without stirrups, and altogether unable to manage the wretched animals, which were as raw as themselves. One had a sabre without a sheath; another a sword without a guard, like a butcher's knife; a third a rusty rapier; a fourth a chequered lance, painted red and white. Black, blue, green, and white pantaloons and breeches, jackets and cassocks, hats and caps, were seen in their ranks, as chance directed: their heels to the horse, they kicked the wretched cattle in the belly, worrying them with either hand by the hempen bridle, and shouting — '*Na, bestia, na!*'

'It was fortunate then for Gallicia and Lodomiria that they came so early as 1772 under the controul of a German prince. Cracow, now the capital of this province, is the seat of arts, literature, and commerce, boasting of thriving manufactories, excellent schools, and academical institutions. Cleanliness, order, and wealth, are observable in all its quarters; the ancient fortifications are demolished; and ramparts, ditches, and walls, have given way to pasture-grounds and flourishing gardens. Upwards of 30,000 people live in this new-modelled city, whose streets are constantly crowded; every thing there is cheap and in abundance; the river Vistula facilitating the supply of the market and the sale of the productions. The nobleman, who can no longer think of dietines and drinking-bouts, has turned a good manager, and is astonished at the opulence of the villages, which formerly yielded him nothing. It is not now at all uncommon to find landed proprietors of the midling kind, with 20 or 30,000 florins ready money in Vienna bank-notes. Since the occupancy of this country, a whole generation have died away; the aboriginal Pole exists, of course, only in advanced age; the youth are of German education; think, live, and act conformably to rational principles; and not a thought of the former government enters their heads.'

It is proper to apprize our readers that the Baron is very partial to the Austrian character, and may therefore have been led into an exaggerated statement of the benefit resulting to Gallicia from its new government. His hopes of recovering his property in Poland rested at one time (p. 65.) on the interference of the Austrian minister; and, when he was obliged to give up his expectations from that quarter, the hospitality and kindness of the inhabitants of Vienna were such as to make a permanent conquest of his affections. Numerous letters are, in consequence, appropriated to an account of the Austrian capital, its squares, its collections of curiosities, its paintings, its theatres, and its music. From these topics he proceeds to describe the neighbouring *châteaux*, palaces, and commanding situations, and does not take leave of Vienna till he has allotted a full third of his book to the report of the various objects belonging to it. — His farther progress took him in the direction of Moravia and Bohemia; where, particularly at Prague, he remained some time, and was on the whole gratified by the attention of the inhabitants of this capital, unpolished and sequestered as it is. Continuing his course northward, he passed Töplitz, so well known in late years for its baths, &c. and went to Dresden, where his admiration was much more excited by the buildings than the inhabitants. 'What a difference,' he says, (p. 172.) 'between Vienna and Dresden; what liberal hospitality in the one, and what calculating economy in the other.' His regret, however, was probably increased by the failure of his attempts to make interest through the court of Saxony for the recovery of his property in Poland; so that he soon turned his face to the southward, proceeding towards Italy in the direction of Nuremberg, Augsburg, and Munich.

The inhabitants of Munich are in number about 50,000, and appear to enjoy a considerable share of comfort and ease, if the traveller may be allowed to judge from the absence of beggary and the general aspect of the place. The streets are straight and wide, and have on both sides paths for foot-passengers, the want of which is productive of so much inconvenience in Paris and many other continental cities. Bavaria was long reproached with backwardness in literature, but the present sovereign has established at Munich an university, an academy, and a library, the extent of which we do not over-rate by calling it 200,000 volumes. — From Munich the Baron held his course to the Tyrol, having its mountains in distant prospect as he traversed the plains of Suabia and Bavaria; and he became a spectator of all the grandeur and awefulness of Alpine scenery on drawing near the town of Fuessen, (*the foot*,) a place so called from lying at the foot of these lofty ridges. To a traveller, however, who follows the carriage-tract to Italy, the view of the Tyrolese mountains is in general confined; the road lying through a defile almost all the way to Roveredo, and rocks or hills obstructing the view on each side.

'The architecture of the Tyrolese is wretched; their houses are of timber, with such flat roofs that you may walk on them.

They load them with enormous stones, as a security against the violence of the hurricanes; which gives them not only a hideous appearance, but in stormy weather exposes the traveller to the danger of being stoned. The eaves, besides, project upwards of two yards over the walls, and form a kind of pent-house, in which the natives place their clumsy waggons. This contracts the narrow street still more, and admits scarcely a carriage to pass: a hundred rills, besides, arising from the rain and snow-water in the mountains, tumble down into the village, and render the road not only difficult, but the atmosphere damp and unwholesome. As early as the 27th of September I found the tops of the mountains covered with snow, and the cold was so intense that I was obliged to wrap myself up in my cloak as closely as possible. Behind Fuessen, the road is much better, for Joseph II. caused the rock to be blasted to the extent of a mile, and a passage to be cut through its bowels. In memory of this benefit bestowed on the public, a monument of marble was erected, with a Latin inscription, which mentions the name of the monarch and the year in which this giant-work was performed. This artificial road extends as far as the bridge over the Lech, which, like a cataract, foams over the fragments of rock that obstruct its channel.

'Here the aspect of the mountains assume a stupendous character: on one side naked rocks, to which the highest steeple is but a card-house, tower to the skies; and on the other, mountains, clothed at their base with forests of pine, whilst eternal snow covers their tops, which, like immense cupolas, lift their heads to the clouds, and give the whole the most singular appearance. Their summits are often wrapt up in fleecy clouds, which obscure the limited horizon to such a degree that you cannot tell where the one region ends, and the other begins.'—

'There is nothing uglier in nature than the Tyrolese women: they wear wigs of blue and white worsted, which, like clotted hair, hang round their heads; and their body is swelled to an enormous size, by a dozen petticoats, of which the uppermost is always black. Their gait is as fierce as a Franciscan friar's, and their pronunciation so broad that there is no chance of understanding them.

'At Botzen, or Bolzero, every thing assumes an Italian character. This place was formerly celebrated for its fairs; excellent confectionaries are made here, and exported far and wide. The German language here gives way to the Italian, which to the broad Tyrolese sounds like music.'

The only place of consequence, or even of comfort, in this long tract, is Innspruck, a town of 12,000 inhabitants, situated in a valley, or rather bottom, on the banks of the Inn. Brixen, so often mentioned in the reports of military operations in 1797 and subsequent years, is a wretched place, scarcely deserving the name of a town. Trent is not equal to Innspruck, but contains 8000 inhabitants, and convinces the traveller by its vineyards that he is about to bid adieu to the region of frost and snow. At Roveredo, an antiquated and ill built town, the author found himself in the enjoyment of the climate as well as of the music of Italy, and it is here accordingly that he brings his narrative to a close.

Baron D'Uklanski apologizes, in a prefatory notice, for venturing to be his own translator into English, and is perfectly aware that he must on various occasions have trespassed against our idiom. Examples of such mistakes certainly occur in several places, (pp. 26. 139. 159. 239.) in the last of which we have the curious mistake of using the word *mail* in the sense of the French *malle, a trunk*; but, on the whole, he has by no means any reason to be ashamed of his progress in our language. We are more disposed to be out of humour with him when we find the date of the battle of Blenheim put down (p. 191.) in the year 1709; and the events of the Trojan war related in the description of a picture-gallery, with a minuteness which seems to suppose his readers to be unacquainted with exploits that are familiar to every school-boy. In fact, these travels have little claim to public attention as literary compositions, or as indicative of erudition on the part of the writer: but they will afford amusement during a leisure-hour by a clear, and, we believe, a faithful report of the manners of several countries which are comparatively little noticed in the books of ordinary tourists.

ART. III. *The City of the Plague, and other Poems.* By John Wilson, Author of the Isle of Palms. 8vo. pp. 299. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

OUT of the "Isle of Palms," from the bosom of the retreat of the fraternity of Water-Poets, (as a sort of appendage to the ramifications of the "LAKE SOCIETY,") has grown the present singular excrescence; and variety is so unfailing a source of amusement, that we are far from supposing that some of our readers may not be pleased with the appearance of so odd a phænomenon; especially at a period which has reconciled them to every *lusus naturæ* that the moral or physical world can exhibit. It is, indeed, in character with those times which produce the dethronement and the restoration of monarchs as every-day occurrences; which make Russian Grand Dukes *quite a drug* in the English annals of fashionable novelty; which exhibit primroses, hepaticas, and every early child of spring in the January-gardens of Glasgow; or which overwhelm us with autumnal winds and wintry snows in summer: — it is in harmony, we say, with all these *out-of-time-and-place* appearances, that we have now to notice the brilliant vagaries of that new *Aurora Borealis*, the muse of Mr. John Wilson.

Let not our readers imagine that our comparisons are overcharged, or our allusions foreign to the purpose. When they learn that 'the City of the Plague' is a sort of dramatic narrative, versified from Daniel De Foe's description of the plague in London, — when they learn that a table is placed in the streets, at which men and women of the worst description are drinking, and singing, largely and discordantly, in the midst of desolation and death, &c. &c. — they will not, we think, be disposed to object to the classification of wonders which we have offered to them above. Were it not clear, from *many* passages in the volume before us, that Mr. Wilson possesses powers of a respectable kind, and that he fully deserves to be cured of that inveterate disorder of bad taste which is now clinging to every joint about him, we should not trouble ourselves or the reader with more than a few words relating to this volume: but, as it is, we shall make some rather ample extracts of the best sort that we can discover; and we shall intersperse some apparently merited censures on the admixture of nonsense and dullness which debases and obscures these better portions of the work.

Two naval officers are supposed to return to London, while that city is under the severe affliction of the plague. Their names are Frankfort and Wilmot; and the former (who is the hero) shall tell his own story to the reader, in a passage which will also exhibit one of the best pictures of the plague.

' *Frankfort.* Wilmot, dost think
My mother can be living?
' *Wilmot.* The soul oft feels
Mysterious presence of realities
Coming we know not whence, yet banishing
With power omnipotent all misgiving fears.
So feel I at this moment — she is living.
' *Frank.* O God forbid! that I should place belief
In these dim shadowings of futurity.
Here, on this very spot where now we rest,
Upon the morning I last sail'd from England,
My mother put her arms around my neck,
And in a solemn voice, unchok'd by tears,
Said, " Son! a last farewell!" That solemn voice,
Amid the ocean's roaring solitude,
Oft past across my soul, and I have heard it
Steal in sad music from the sunny calm.
Upon our homeward voyage, when we spake
The ship that told us of the Plague, I knew
That the trumpet's voice would send into our souls
Some dismal tidings; for I saw her sails

Black in the distance, flinging off with scorn
A shower of radiance from the blessed sun,
As if her crew would not be comforted.
‘ *Wil.* The weakness of affection, prone to fear!
Be comforted by me — my very dreams
Of late have all been joyous.
‘ *Frank.* Joyous dreams!
My hours of sleep are now but few indeed,
Yet what have I still dreamt of? healthful faces,
Round a sweet fire-side, bright with gratitude?
The soft voice of domestic happiness?
Laughter disturbing with the stir of joy
The reveries of the spirit? — Oh! my friend!
Far other sounds and sights have fill'd my dreams!
Still noiseless floors, untrod by human feet;
Chairs standing rueful in their emptiness;
An unswept hearth chok'd up by dust and ashes;
Beds with their curtains idly hanging down
Unmov'd by the breath of life; wide open windows
That the fresh air might purify the room
From vapours of the noisome pestilence;
In a dark chamber, ice-cold, like a tomb,
A corpse laid out — O God! my mother's corpse
Woefully altered by a dire decay;
While my stunn'd spirit shudder'd at the toll,
The long, slow, dreary, sullen, mortal toll
Of a bell swinging to the hand of death.
But this is idle raving — hope is gone —
And fears and apprehensions, day and night,
Drive where they will my unresisting soul.
‘ *Wil.* But that it is day-light, I could believe
That yonder, moving by the river side,
Came on a ghost. Did ever eye behold
A thing so death-like in the shape of man?
[*An old man of a miserable and squalid appearance comes up, carrying an infant in his arms.*]
‘ *Frank.* God's blessing on thee! wilt thou rest, old man,
Upon this traveller's seat?
‘ *Old Man.* God's blessing on thee!
What, dost thou mean to taunt with mockery
An old man tottering to the grave? What pleasure
Can ye young wretches find in scoffing thus
At the white head of hunger'd beggary?
Have ye no fathers? Well it is for them
That their dry hearts are spar'd the bitterness
Of seeing, in the broad and open day,
Their reckless children sporting with old age.
‘ *Frank.* Father, judge kindly of us.
‘ *Old Man.* Let me go
Untroubled on my way. Do you pity me?
Then give me alms: this thing upon my arm

Is teasing me for food: I have it not—
Give me your alms.
' *Frank.* See! here is bread, old man!
I ask your blessing—come you from the city,
And none to guide your steps along the brink
Of this great river?
' *Old Man.* Yea! they all are dead
Who once did walk with me most lovingly,
Slowlier than these slow steps. This piece of wood,
This staff, is all I have to lean on now,
And this poor baby, whom its nurse would give
For a short pastime to his grandsire's arms,
No other nurse hath now, but wither'd age—
Sour, sullen, hopeless, God-forsaken age.
' *Frank.* Is the Plague raging?
' *Old Man.* Aye, and long will rage.
The judgments of the prophets of old time
Are now fulfilling. Young men, turn and flee
From the devoted city. Would ye hear
What now is passing in yon monster's heart?
' *Frank.* We listen to thy voice.
' *Old Man.* Three months ago
Within my soul I heard a mighty sound
As of a raging river, day and night
Triumphing through the city: 'twas the voice
Of London sleepless in magnificence.
This morn I stood and listen'd. "Art thou dead,
Queen of the world!" I ask'd my awe-struck heart,
And not one breath of life amid the silence
Disturb'd the empire of mortality.
Death's icy hand hath frozen, with a touch,
The fountain of the river that made glad
The City of the Isle!
' *Frank.* We hear thy voice.
' *Old Man.* Sin brought the judgment: it was terrible.
Go read your Bible, young men; hark to him
Who, in a vision, saw the Lion rage
Amid the towers of Judah, while the people
Fell on their faces, and the hearts of kings
Perish'd, and prophets wonder'd in their fear.
Then came the dry wind from the wilderness,
Towards the hill of Sion, not to fan
Or cleanse, but, whirlwind-like, to sweep away
The tents of princes and the men of war.
' *Frank.* Wilmot! methinks most like an ancient prophet,
With those white locks and wild unearthly eyes,
He comes forth from the desolated city,
A man who cannot die. O may I ask,
Most reverend father, if——
' *Old Man.* Hush! hush! lie still!—
Didst hear this infant cry? So small a sound

Ought not to startle thus a wretch who comes
From a three months' sojourn in a sepulchre.
Here! infant, eat this bread, and hold thy peace.
Young men, disturb me not with foolish questions;
Your faces are towards the city: Will ye dare
The monster in his den? Then go and die!
Two little drops amid a shower of rain,
Swallowed up in a moment by the heedless earth.
Frank. I fain would ask one question; for, old man,
My parent lived in London, and I go
To seek her in that city of the tombs.
‘ *Old Man.* Think of her with the dead! A ship at sea
(Methinks I speak unto a mariner)
Goes to the bottom. Would you hope to find
Your friend alone, of all the fated crew,
Alive on a plank next day amid the waves?
Think of her with the dead! and praise the Lord!
‘ *Wil.* Let us begone, the day is wearing fast.
‘ *Old Man.* Know ye what you will meet with in the city?
Together will ye walk, through long, long streets,
All standing silent as a midnight church.
You will hear nothing but the brown red grass
Rustling beneath your feet; the very beating
Of your own hearts will awe you; the small voice
Of that vain bauble, idly counting time,
Will speak a solemn language in the desert.
Look up to heaven, and there the sultry clouds,
Still threatening thunder, lower with grim delight,
As if the Spirit of the Plague dwelt there,
Darkening the city with the shadows of death.
Know ye that hideous hubbub? Hark, far off
A tumult like an echo! on it comes,
Weeping and wailing, shrieks and groaning prayer;
And louder than all outrageous blasphemy.
The passing storm hath left the silent streets.
But are these houses near you tenantless?
Over your heads from a window, suddenly
A ghastly face is thrust, and yells of death
With voice not human. Who is he that flies,
As if a demon dogg'd him on his path?
With ragged hair, white face, and bloodshot eyes,
Raving, he rushes past you; till he falls,
As if struck by lightning, down upon the stones,
Or, in blind madness, dash'd against the wall,
Sinks backward into stillness. Stand aloof,
And let the Pest's triumphal chariot
Have open way advancing to the tomb.
See how he mocks the pomp and pageantry
Of earthly kings! A miserable cart,
Heap'd up with human bodies; dragg'd along
By pale steeds, skeleton-anatomies!

And onwards urged by a wan meagre wretch,
Doom'd never to return from the foul pit,
Whither, with oaths, he drives his load of horror.
Would you look in? Gray hairs and golden tresses,
Wan shrivell'd cheeks that have not smil'd for years;
And many a rosy visage smiling still;
Bodies in the noisome weeds of beggary wrapt,
With age decrepit, and wasted to the bone;
And youthful frames, august and beautiful,
In spite of mortal pangs, — there lie they all
Embrac'd in ghastliness! But look not long,
For haply, 'mid the faces glimmering there,
The well-known cheek of some beloved friend
Will meet thy gaze, or some small snow-white hand,
Bright with the ring that holds her lover's hair.
Let me sit down beside you. I am faint
Talking of horrors that I look'd upon
At last without a shudder.
' *Frank.* Give me the child.
' *Old Man.* Let the wretch rest.'

In this passage, which is certainly one of the happiest in the whole performance, we have to notice several of the writer's prevailing faults.

Our old authors, (whom the "Lads of the Lakes," above all other moderns, affect to imitate; witness Mr. Southey's fondness for George Wither, &c.) our old authors, we say, and especially the dramatists of Elizabeth's and James's reigns, were accustomed to add a syllable, *or two*, as it might happen, to the END of their decasyllabic measures: and thus they often produced a pleasing, because an harmonious, variety in their numbers. Massinger and some others are, perhaps, fuller of examples of this kind than Shakspeare: but he also frequently offers them; and, in succeeding times, Otway and Rowe indulged in the same admissible liberty. So far, so good: but the freedom thus allowably taken at the *end* of a line becomes a licence of a different description when the redundant syllable is inserted in the middle of the verse. One of the least offensive instances of this irregularity is to be found at the beginning of the above quotation: but still, as we contend against the practice, we cannot pass it wholly uncensured.

——— ' banishing
With power omnipotent *all* misgiving fears.'

We proceed to other examples of this innovation:

' That the trumpet's voice would send into our souls.'

' The reveries of the spirit! Oh my friend.'

Many of the verses halt in a different manner:

' But *that it is daylight,* I could believe.'

It is not possible to tell how these new poets intend to accent their verses, or we should object to the adoption of an obsolete accentuation (used indeed, improperly enough, by Dryden) in the following line:

> 'Triūmphing through the city — 'twas the voice.'

The varieties of this oddity are endless:

> 'From a three months' sojourn in a sepulchre.'
> 'Your faces are towards the city — will ye dare.'
> 'Swallowed up in a moment by the heedless earth.'
> 'And louder than all outrageous blasphemy.'
> 'Over your heads from a window, suddenly.'
> 'As if struck by lightning, down upon the stones.'
> 'Bodies in the noisome weeds of beggary wrapt.'
> 'With age decrepit, and wasted to the bone.'
> 'And youthful faces, august and beautiful.'

Now all these portentous absurdities arise from one and the same vulgar error; the notion that, within the space of the regular heroic verse, we have not room for every admissible and every musical variety of numbers. Undoubtedly this problem has been often solved; and many of our best writers (Dryden, above every example,) have clearly proved that, by a judicious interchange of short and long pauses in the rhythm, and by the happy adaptation of melodious words in the expression, verse may reach its highest point of harmony in the decasyllabic measure. The occasional and cautious introduction of the triplet, especially where an Alexandrine closes both the triplet and the sentence, may certainly add something to the variety, without taking any thing away from the correctness of such a style of versification: but for most of these established rules and principles of art, Mr. Wilson (the "child of nature," we presume,) has to all appearance the most sovereign contempt; and the inevitable consequences are, discord in his numbers, and aukwardnes in his phraseology. Whether he deems it necessary to tread in the exact footsteps of his great precursor and evident model, Mr. Wordsworth, and is therefore "prosaic upon principle," we know not: but, certainly, many of his phrases are adapted only to the familiar tone of conversation, and leave all the ideal beauty and ornamented charm of poetry entirely out of the question. What, for instance, would a better and higher taste say to such lines as we are about to subjoin? It cannot be necessary to warn our readers, although the author may require such a warning, that we do not wish to see common facts related in *exalted* language: but there is a medium (namely, the *proper* dignity of poetry; alas! a dignity that now seems quite forgotten!) between the *hail, fellow-well-met-easiness* of not very elegant conversation, and the tender or energetic tones of passion. It is this very medium which constitutes the true *pervading* character of classical composition, and it admits of every variation of language which can convey the more quiet emotions, or record the less interesting events of life; events, however, which must still be susceptible of something picturesque in their description, or introduce something of importance in their consequences. All this, we are persuaded, is *Chinese philosophy* to Mr. Wilson: but we have more respect for our readers than to omit so fair an opportunity of recalling it to their recollection.

'*Go read your Bible, young men!*'
'*A ship at sea*
'*Goes to the bottom.*'

The whole work is full of such familiarities of expression, and indeed of such violations of poetical cadence, as we have already pointed out. Every reader will be as able as ourselves to discover them; and, having solicited his attention to the subject, we beg to be spared the repetition of tiresome, and in course of unacceptable censure. It is still less necessary to mark the beauties of the long quotation which we have already selected; they consist principally in a vivid and strong perception of the picturesque in external objects; and in the simple and touching power of so representing human feelings as to make the reader participate in them.

We meet with a striking scene of an astrologer preying on the credulity of the living among the open graves of the departed. The wretch dies in the midst of his impious deceptions; and the effect, though the event is a little too naked and inartificial, is certainly considerable.

The ladies in the cathedral, and Magdalene, the heroine, discovered at the altar, afford an opportunity for some good poetry: but the description that follows, of the drinking and singing scene, mocks all imagination! Let any person judge from the opening of the first speech. Well, indeed, we may here say, "*Crimine ab uno disce omnes.*" Here, in good earnest, is "mirth *wholly* without images;" here are attempts at wit without *any* success; and here is the boldness of debauchery without the poor excuse of its being natural. We never read any thing more abundant in grossness, more perfect in stupidity!

‘ Scene IV.

‘ *The street.—A long table covered with glasses.—A party of young men and women* carousing.

‘ *Young Man.* I rise to give, most noble President,
The memory of a man well known to all,
Who by keen jest, and merry anecdote,
Sharp repartee, and humorous remark
Most biting in its solemn gravity,
Much cheer'd our out-door table, and dispell'd
The fogs which this rude visitor the Plague
Oft breathed across the brightest intellect.
But two days past, our ready laughter chaced
His various stories; and it cannot be
That we have in our gamesome revelries
Forgotten Harry Wentworth. His chair stands
Empty at your right hand — as if expecting
That jovial wassailer — but he is gone
Into cold narrow quarters. Well, I deem
The grave did never silence with its dust
A tongue more eloquent; but since 'tis so,
And store of boon companions yet survive,
There is no reason to be sorrowful;
Therefore let us drink unto his memory
With acclamation, and a merry peal
Such as in life he loved.
‘ *Master of Revels.* 'Tis the first death
Hath been amongst us, therefore let us drink
His memory in silence.
‘ *Young Man.* Be it so.
[*They all rise, and drink their glasses in silence.*]
‘ *Master of Revels.* Sweet Mary Gray! Thou hast a silver voice,
And wildly to thy native melodies
Can tune its flute-like breath — sing us a song,
And let it be, even 'mid our merriment,
Most sad, most slow, that when its music dies,
We may address ourselves to revelry,
More passionate from the calm, as men leap up
To this world's business from some heavenly dream.'

The Scotch song which follows has merit in parts: but it is that exhausted species of merit which Burns and his predecessors and followers have now left to none but the most servile of copyists.

Just after this ordinary song, on an extraordinary occasion,

‘ The dead cart passes by, driven by a negro;'

and presently the Young Man, addressing his mistress in the elegant language of

‘ *Come brighten up,*
Louisa!'

calls for another song, ——‘ a free

—— 'a free and gladsome song;
None of those Scottish ditties framed of sighs,
But a true English, bacchanalian song,
By toper chaunted o'er the flowing bowl.'

The 'Master of the Revels' then engages to sing 'a Song on the Plague.'

'*Many voices.* A song on the Plague!
A song on the Plague! Let's have it! bravo! bravo!'

These words, perhaps, may be applied by some of Mr. Wilson's most devoted admirers to his own 'Song on the Plague!' and they may cry bravo, bravo, with as much propriety as this *disgusting* company; who, in their endeavour to be horrible, excite no ideas but those which are nauseous and loathsome. The chorus to the song on the plague will, we think, justify these epithets, or any other that the revolted reader may chuse to apply to such a burden of such a song:

'CHORUS.
'Then, leaning on this snow-white breast,
I sing the praises of the Pest!
If me thou would'st this night destroy,
Come, smite me in the arms of joy.'

We turn to other matters. — The old greyheaded priest, who brings his religion to be insulted, and the abandoned females who mingle shame and excess, remorse and riot, *at the same moment*, must be left to the reader (if such there be, who is not a reviewer,) of the whole poem. —We now enter into '*a street opposite a house adjoining Aldgate Church-yard!*' To what shall we come at last in poetry? Heroes will be sought at Bartholomew-fair; and heroines will arise from little St. Thomas Apostle.

The succeeding passage, in which the deaths of Frankfort's mother and little brother are described, displays the pathetic powers of the writer in their best light. The now hackneyed idea of the beauty of a corse, immediately after dissolution, (so admirably introduced into Lord Byron's Giaour,) commences the description with no very successful effect: but that which follows is more original, and (*exceptis excipiendis*) may certainly be considered as an indication of a genius for the description of affecting scenes:

'*Priest.* Though from the awful suddenness of their death
The Plague hath surely stricken them, yet they lie
Unlike the other victims of that pest
In more than mortal beauty. Their still faces,
When

When last I saw them, in the moonlight lay,
Like innocence sleeping in the love of heaven,
Love mix'd with pity. Though a smile was there,
It seem'd a smile ne'er meant for human eye,
Nor seem'd regarding me; but there it shone,
A mournful lustre filling all the room
With the silence of its placid holiness.
' *Frank.* Lovelier than when alive they might not be.
Tell how they died.
' *Priest.* Last night I sat with her
And talk'd of thee; — two tranquil hours we talk'd
Of thee and none beside, while little William
Sat in his sweet and timid silent way
Upon his stool beside his mother's knees,
And, sometimes looking upwards to her face,
Seem'd listening of his brother far at sea.
This morning early I look'd in upon them
Almost by chance. There little William lay
With his bright hair and rosy countenance,
Dead! though at first I thought he only slept.
" You think," his mother said, " that William sleeps!
But he is dead! He sicken'd during the night,
And while I pray'd he drew a long deep sigh,
And breath'd no more!"
' *Frank.* O sweet and sinless child!
Go on — go on!
' *Priest.* I look'd on her who spake,
And I saw something in her tearless eyes
More than a mother's grief — the cold dull gleam
Of mortal sickness hastening to decay.
She ask'd me not to leave her, and I staid
Till human help or comfort by that saint
No more was needed. But a gentler death
A Christian never died. Methought her soul
Faded in light, even as a glorious star
Is hidden 'mid the splendours of the morn.
' *Frank.* I hope she wept not long and bitterly
For her poor sailor's sake. O cruel wind
That kept our ship last night far out at sea!
' *Priest.* " In life I was most happy in my son,"
She said, " and none may know the happiness
His image yields me at the hour of death."
— I found that she had laid upon her bed
Many of those little presents that you brought her
From your first voyage to the Indies. Shells
With a sad lustre brighten'd o'er the whiteness
Of these her funeral sheets; and gorgeous feathers,
With which, few hours before, her child was playing,
And lisping all the while his brother's name,
Form'd a sad contrast with the pale, pale face
Lying so still beneath its auburn hair.

Two letters still are in her death-closed hand
And will be buried with her. One was written
By your captain, after the great victory
Over De Ruyter, and with loftiest praise
Of her son's consummate skill and gallantry
During the battle, told how he had saved
The lives of two young noble Hollanders,
By leaping overboard amid a storm.
The other, now almost effaced by tears,
Was from yourself, the last she had from you,
And spoke of your return. God bless thee, boy!
I am too old to weep — but such return
Wrings out the tears from my old wither'd heart.
'*Frank.* O 'tis the curse of absence that our love
Becomes too sad — too tender — too profound
Towards all our far-off friends. Home we return
And find them dead for whom we often wept,
Needlessly wept when they were in their joy!
Then goes the broken-hearted mariner
Back to the sea that welters drearily
Around the homeless earth!
'*Priest.* Thy mother waits
Her son's approach — in beauty and in peace.
'*Frank.* I go into her chamber — fear me not.
I will not rush into the holy presence
With frantic outcry, and with violent steps
Most unbecoming 'mid the hush of death.
But I, with footsteps gentle as the dew,
And with suspended breath, will reach her bed;
There silent as she is, so will I be,
Lying beside my mother in her sleep
With my head upon her bosom — cold — cold — cold.'

The little ballad intitled 'the Dirge,' at page 79., has much prettiness about it: but we are rather insensible, we believe, to the transcendant merits of this species of poetical effort. The hymn that ensues is pious: but '*There goes a notable fool!*', which is the speech that immediately follows it, shews the danger of admitting such effusions of piety into a drama so thoroughly of the *composite kind* as 'the City of the Plague.'

A maniac is introduced among the sufferers from the plague; and he, as it may be expected, out-Herods Herod in his extravagance: but we turn from him with pleasure to a little passage in which the author has evidently written *con amore*; for it is a passage relating to that "Land of Dreams" where *he and his confraternity co-exist*, in the interesting but not very novel characters of

Mild Arcadians, ever blooming,
Nightly nodding o'er their books;

All their scribbling days consuming,
Cawing like 12,000 rooks.

But hark!

'—There is a little church-yard on the side
Of a low hill, that hangs o'er Rydal-lake,
Behind the house where Magdalene was born.
Most beautiful it is; a vernal glade
Enclos'd with wooded rocks! where a few graves
Lie shelter'd, sleeping in eternal calm.
Go thither when you will, and that green spot
Is bright with sunshine. There they hop'd to lie!
And there they often spoke to Magdalene
Of their own dying day. For death put on
The countenance of an angel in the place
Which he had sanctified. I see the spot
Which they had chosen for their sleep — but far,
O far away from that sweet sanctuary
They rest, and all its depth of *sunny calm.*'

This said '*sunny calm*' is an old friend; and we remember him in our first quotation.

We have here also a sexton, engrafted on the old stock of Hamlet's grave-digger; and a duel fought at a grave, we suppose from the model of Romeo and County-Paris. We must hurry over the third act of this long, this perilously long, dramatic narrative. The deaths of the hero and heroine are really very tender and beautiful descriptions: but we rather prefer another quotation of a general kind relating to the plague:

'*Priest.* Once at noon-day
Alone I stood upon a tower that rises
From the centre of the city. I look'd down
With awe upon that world of misery;
Nor for a while could say that I beheld
Aught save one wide gleam indistinctly flung
From that bewildering grandeur: till at once
The objects all assum'd their natural form,
And grew into a city stretching round
On every side, far as the bounding sky.
Mine eyes first rested on the squares that lay
Without one moving figure, with fair trees
Lifting their tufted heads unto the light,
Sweet sunny spots of rural imagery
That gave a beauty to magnificence.
Silent as nature's solitary glens
Slept the long streets — and mighty London seem'd,
With all its temples, domes, and palaces,
Like some sublime assemblage of tall cliffs
That bring down the deep stillness of the heavens

To shroud them in the desert. Groves of masts
Rose through the brightness of the sun-smote river,
But all their flags were struck, and every sail
Was lower'd. Many a distant land had felt
The sudden stoppage of that mighty heart.
Then thought I that the vain pursuits of man
Possess'd a semblance of sublimity,
Thus suddenly o'erthrown; and as I look'd
Down on the courts and markets, where the soul
Of this world's business once roar'd like the sea,
That sound within my memory strove in vain,
Yet with a mighty power, to break the silence
That like the shadow of a troubled sky
Or moveless cloud of thunder, lay beneath me,
The breathless calm of universal death.'

A *versification* of a passage in the burial-service is very aukwardly introduced, to say the least, in the concluding scene; and a variety of other faults might be pointed out, which we have neither room nor inclination to mention. If Mr. Wilson will take the advice which we have given him, (disagreeable as the medicine may be,) we are convinced that he will appear again before the public in a manner much more worthy of his natural powers. Let him not aim at singularity, or rather at *Lakery*, and he will reach distinction.— The remaining poems in the volume do not require particular notice, after this long examination of the principal production.

ART. IV. *The Bower of Bliss*; with other amatory Poems; including the Loves of Abelard and Heloise. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Wilson.

OUR readers will probably care little about amatory poems, of which the writing, we believe, is commonly more gratifying than the reading. If they are free from immorality and affectation, it is all that we usually expect; without looking for the excellence of Tibullus or Ovid, Petrarch or Moore. We have heard that the present work is derived from the pen of the author of "The Battles of the Danube and Barrosa," reviewed in our lxvith Vol. p. 321., but unfortunately the poem which gives the name to the volume is, in our opinion, the worst of the collection, and not intitled even to the commendations to which we have alluded. Yet the following passage has merit:

'For, sure a more delightful maid,
Not Eden's sylvan shades display'd,
Than gentle Angioline;

Upon her brow sat mild content,
And on her cheeks, divinely blent,
  The mingling flowers were seen:
The lily there, in all its pride,
Disported by the rose's side,
And in her eyes the tender flames,
That honor loves, and virtue claims,
  In full perfection shone;
Her breast was spotless as the snow
Which Norway's mountain-summits know, —
  And from her voice, the tone
Of angel-numbers, sweet and clear,
Stole on the wild, transported ear,
When evening from the western sphere,
  Her dusky veil had thrown.'

In general, however, the poem is as much above our comprehension as it is below mediocrity. — The loves of 'Philander and Leanthe' are said to be sung in the manner of Spenser; we wish that we could admit the justice of the resemblance: but the only part of Spenser's manner which the author has caught is in the recurrence of the rhymes; while he has had the singular imprudence not only to provoke a comparison with Spenser, but also to prefix to this poem one of the most beautiful stanzas from Mrs. Tighe's Psyche, of which the charms are equally beyond praise and rivalry. The demerit of this, as of all the other compositions in the volume, consists in the want of excellence rather than in absolute faults; sameness and insipidity pervading the whole. Perhaps the two succeeding stanzas afford as favourable a specimen as we could select:

' Let not the unfeeling heart that cannot taste
Love's pure, and sweet, ineffable delight,
And all those joys which nature hath embrac'd,
To set the wrongs of our existence right,
Presume the buddings of my song to blight,
Nor of its glowing properties complain; —
Those who attest the passions will unite,
To guard the muse and vindicate her strain,
And in their raptures own she has not sung in vain.

' But if it meet my sweet Leanthe's eye,
And charm awhile her melancholy ear,
If it call forth one unaffected sigh,
One unpolluted and ingenuous tear, —
I laugh to scorn the cynic's vulgar sneer,
And all the malice of inveterate hearts,
For dear is Feeling's voice, and trebly dear
The heavenly tones which Gratitude imparts,
Free from each selfish aim, and all ignoble arts.'

At page 51. we have a translation of Metastasio's celebrated poem "*La Libertà*," of which so many versions have already appeared; see Gent. Magazine, Vol. xl. p. 278.; British Magazine, Vol. iv. p. 37., and the second volume of Dodsley's Miscellanies. It has also been well rendered by the late Dr. Burney. The translation now before us is not inferior to some of its predecessors, but it by no means rivals the delicacy and spirit of the original. Indeed, these little poems of the Italian school scarcely admit of transplantation; they are like those delicious fruits, the flavour of which is so delicate that it is impossible to taste them in perfection any where but on their native soil; and of all the authors who have dealt in productions of this kind, few if any are equal, and none superior, to Metastasio.* Almost every stanza of this exquisite little poem, compared with any one of the English copies of it, would illustrate our remark; and in every one of them we should find a mis-representation of the sense, or the loss of some peculiar expression, or the escape of some little turn of thought that is remarkable and characteristic in the original. We have not leisure at present to institute the comparison, but shall conclude our remarks with quoting the last four stanzas of the present translation:

'Thou think'st, indeed, my wounded heart
Still feels the lingering pangs of love,
Because my words so oft impart
The pleasure they were wont to prove:
But 'tis not passion now excites
My tongue to dwell on bliss that's o'er,
It is that nature now delights,
To know the danger reigns no more.

'So when no more the battle sounds,
The warrior, proud to swell his fame,
Displays the scars of former wounds,
And tells of many a favourite name:
And so the slave, who long has worn
The bondage of a tyrant's reign,
When from its horrid influence torn,
Can smile upon the ruthless chain.

'Although my heart no longer grieve,
Thou can'st not ever share its joy;
Nor wou'd I ask thee to believe
My soul releas'd from care's alloy:

---

* Metastasio, in his own country, is ranked even before Ariosto and Tasso. Indeed the versatility of his genius, always under the controul of taste, intitles him to the highest place among the writers of lyric poetry, a species of composition most peculiarly characteristic of Italy. See Sherlock's Letters from Italy, about 1771.

I speak,

I speak, but never wish to gain
Thy favoring ear to what I speak,—
And if myself I entertain,
'Tis now the only joy I seek.

' I lose, 'tis true, a worthless flame,
  Thou leav'st a lover few can boast,
We both may consolation claim,
  But who, Clorinda, shares the most?
And well I know thou'lt never find
A heart with so much warmth to beat,
Whilst I shall prove, however blind,
'Tis easy to procure a cheat!'

Of all the enterprises of this author, the most daring will doubtless be deemed the attempt to give a new poetical version of the supposed Letters of Heloise to Abelard, after that of Pope; which some judicious critics have considered as the best of all his works; which cannot but be admitted to be replete with feeling and dignity; and to which we never recur without discovering new beauties and receiving new pleasure. The present author apprehends that Pope has not rightly represented the character of Heloise; that he has given a constancy and philosophy to her sentiments which the spirit of her letters does not warrant; and that, since it appears from the evidence of her correspondence that, amid all her wisdom and discrimination, her judgment was too often overborne by her passions, the only way to afford a correct idea of her character and mind is to paint the latter in all their warmth and violence. Many years have passed since we read those fascinating letters, and, if we remember rightly, nearly the same remark occurred to us from the perusal of them: but, though such may be the result of a comparison of the letters with Pope's poem, we must hesitate to admit that it forms a defect in the composition of the latter. The poet, it must be remembered, had not merely to represent the sentiments as he found them, but to digest and reduce them into a poetical shape and form; — to make a consistent and poetical character. This, we think, he has admirably executed; and we cannot so far compliment the effort before us, as to recommend a comparison of it with his celebrated version of the same subject. It is not, however, undeserving of commendation, and perhaps it is not an unfavourable proof of the author's powers, though in very few passages does it rise above a fair mediocrity. Had we room for extracts, it would not be easy to select from a tale of this nature; in which one chain of sentiment pervades the whole, and therefore the whole in a great measure hangs together: but such of our readers as are not tired of this antient and melancholy history may be advised to read the present poem, without fear of encountering any thing likely to offend them in point of taste or of propriety. The author, in a preface to this composition, announces his intention, if it be favourably received, to attempt a similar version of the letters of Abelard to Heloise. This has been often executed, and, we think, often enough; the subject of the tale has become trite and uninteresting; and it ought not to be forgotten that the principal incident in it is of a nature that no language can ever render wholly unobjectionable on the score of indecency. The author has also prefixed a biographical sketch of the hero and heroine: but we find nothing in it new or remarkable, and it is rather indifferent in point of style.

Among the miscellaneous productions at the end of the volume, is a fragment on the Battle of Albuera, in the style of the author's previous poem on the battles of the Danube and Barrosa. It possesses considerable spirit, and, indeed, is in our opinion the best in the collection. Battle-subjects have been so often treated in poetry, and particularly of late years, that we must not look for any thing new: but we here find some of the common-place topics of the subject introduced in a poetical and pleasing manner. We extract the opening passage:

> ' When shall the reign of crime be o'er,
> And Mercy rule the world once more,
> To bless mankind, and with her breath
> Dissolve the levelling sword of death?
> When shall the blooming nymph be seen
> Leading the dragons from the green,
> Where Desolation spread her wings
> Around the camp of treach'rous kings,
> And, in a guilty hour, unfurl'd
> Her banners o'er a fainting world,—
> Beheld her showers of slaughter fly,
> Like lightning through a summer sky,
> Threat'ning to shroud, for evermore,
> On meadows of congealing gore,
> That cherub form, whose pleading eye
> Bursts through the rolling orbs on high,
> And sees, beyond the scene of strife,
> The tower of everlasting life,
> The haven, where our souls may lie
> At anchor to eternity?
>
> ' But not alone th' Hungarian maid
>   Shall mourn her hapless lot,
> And weep for him who fondly stray'd,
> (No truant to the vows he made)
>   At evening to her cot;

Many are they who yet shall feel
The vengeance of the Tyrant's steel—
  Nor Gallia's maids alone,
Shall curse the sanguinary hour,
That led the ruffian Chief to pow'r,
  And Bourbon's ravag'd throne:
Along the banks of Loire and Seine,
Distracted girls shall walk at e'en,
  And on the Danube's shore,—
Beside the Oder, Elbe, and Main,
The Dneister, Vistula, and Rhine,
Hundreds are left, and left to pine
  For lovers now no more:
Their heavy griefs no aid admit,
For their's was love which honour lit,
Pure as the gales that round them blow,
Pure and as spotless as the snow,
  Of mountains wild and hoar;
Nor shall the shepherd's evening flute,
Sounding along the woodlands mute,
  Nor Wolga's giant roar,
Drown the commingling moans that rise
Beneath Circassia's dusky skies;
  Nor shall the Dwina roll
Thro' his cold realms and mountains drear,
Unconscious of the woe that's near,
  Of many a widow'd soul.'

Again:

'There is a dread sublime delight,
  Enjoy'd by every feeling breast,
In wand'ring thro' the glooms of night,
Beneath the moon's imperfect light,
  To watch the warrior-bands at rest,—
To watch the daring souls at peace,
Whose toils but with the darkness cease,
  Or Victory's timely aid,—
Whose work is death, and fire, and woe,
Whom Nature's voice forbids to know,
Or friendship's sympathetic glow,
  (Until the battle's staid)
Or aught of mercy to the foe,
  That lifts the naked blade:
But those who never trod the plain,
  Night's dusky veils conceal,
Where thousands sleep, who ne'er again
Shall slumber, but among the slain,
  Can never, never feel
The dreadful doubts of scenes to come,
When loudly rolls the morning drum,
And clanging trumpets peal,

That rack the guardsman's cautious heart,
  As thro' the camp his round he takes,
Listening to every fitful start,
  That on the chilly night-wind breaks.'

Then, after some general description of the battle, as wéll the preparation for it, and after addresses to Lord Beres-d and the Duke of Wellington, the poet apostrophizes Bo-parte. We quote the following and concluding passage:

‘ O! when the hour of death draws nigh,
When the grave yawns to that dark eye,
  Ambition only fires;
Dismal and long shall be thy sigh,
All hell shall round thy chamber cry,
  Till Nature's toil expires:
In that sad hour, when every hope
Foregoes its sweet, its wonted scope,—
When the eternal soul must yield,
  And leave its seat of clay,
Then shall the battle's bloody field,
Where trumpets clang'd, and thunders peal'd,
  In fortune's glorious day,
Stand to thy shudd'ring eyes reveal'd,
By victory's clouds no more conceal'd,
  And rack thee with dismay!
Then shall the captive's bitter moan,
  The widow's dismal scream,
Assail thy guilt-supported throne,
Then, then, shall D'Enghien's spectre groan
  And haunt thy parting dream,—
Shake in thy unrelenting sight,
The brand of that remember'd night,
  That shudder'd at its beam,
When thro' the long retiring wood,
Bent on the horrid deed of blood,
  The violators trod,
Laughing to scorn, in that lone hour,
The great and all-forbearing power,
  Of an insulted God!

‘ O! in that dark and troublous tide,
How vain thy paltry upstart pride,—
How vain that strength, which once cou'd wield
The thunders of the battle-field,
  And shake the world in arms!
How vain, poor Trifler! all thy boasts,—
Where now are all thy mighty hosts,
  To succour thy alarms!
Where now the heroes of the fight,
  That led the battle down,

From hill to hill, from height to height,
Loud vaunters of thy giant might,
And guardians of thy crown?
Where are they now, to soothe the pangs
That wring thy coward heart,—
To chase the anguish'd tear that hangs
On thy distorted cheek?
Alas! their hopes no peace impart,
Their fondest pray'rs are weak;
They see thee writhe—they hear thee moan,
They mark thy death-encompass'd throne,
Turn back, and are afraid;
They catch thy last tumultuous breath,
Behold thee in the arms of death,
Confounded and dismayed!'

We have given rather a fuller account of this book than perhaps it may be judged to require: but our readers will, we trust, excuse us for detaining them so long in 'The Bower of Bliss.'

Art. V. *History of the House of Romanof*, the present Imperial Russian Dynasty, from the earliest Period to the Time of Peter the Great; intended as an Introduction to a History of the Life and Reign of that celebrated Monarch; and including the Russian History from the first Accession of the Family to the Throne. By the Author of the Orphans, or the Battle of Nevil's Cross, a Metrical Romance; Ode to the Emperor Alexander, &c. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies, &c.

In Theophanes, that is in the year 774, the Syriac Assemani fancied that he had found the first traces of the Russian name and nation: but a severer criticism construes the epithet ϱȣσια to mean *ruddled*, or painted red, and not Russian. It is therefore in the Bertinian annals that the first notice of this people occurs, which is referred to the year 839. The Russians speak a Slavonian dialect, and must consequently (as Forster has shewn in his letter to Michaelis) be allied in language with the Medes of antiquity, from some of whose tribes they no doubt descend.—About the year 870, they submitted to the sway of Rurik, a Norman, one of the companions possibly of Okther. In the Vandal-tribes, who peopled Carinthia, Bohemia, and Moravia, the peasantry have still Slavonian names, but the nobility have Gothic names: so that an early internal hereditary ascendancy was every where acquired by the Goths over the contiguous Slavonians; because they were the more civilized of the two tribes, or from a physical admiration of their fairer complexion and appearance. Either of these causes would sufficiently account for the elevation of Rurik, who made Novgorod his chief residence.

The dynasty which sprang from Rurik continued to reign until 1598. In 882 they acquired Kiow, and transferred thither the seat of power. In 955, Olga, the daughter-in-law of Rurik, went to Constantinople, and was there baptized. Her husband, and son, remained faithful to Perun, the national idol: but in 988 Vladimir, her grandson, submitted to baptism. With the religion of the Constantinopolitan Greeks, their monks, their arts, and their sciences, in some degree penetrated into Russia; and already in 1056 was born Nestor, the first Russian annalist, who wrote at the end of the eleventh century, and died in the Pechzerian convent at Kiow. He supplies all the tradition that is known concerning the earlier history.—From his time onward, other monkish chronicles furnish a regular series of historical narrations. Sylvester, the abbot of Perejaslavil, was the continuator of Nestor's chronicle; and to him succeeded Simeon, Bishop of Susdal, who wrote in 1206, and many other ecclesiastics. Some corroborations and some corrections of their intelligence may be gleaned from chronicles, pedigrees, and red-books, (*Rozradnye knigi*,) but the earliest document preserved in the archives of the empire dates from the Czar Andreas, who died in 1158.

The best introduction to the history of Russia is contained in the *Probe Russischer Annalen* of Schloetzer; and the best statistical account of the country in Tooke's *View of the Russian Empire*. The author of the small volume before us has paid little attention either to the judicious archæology of the historian, or to the comprehensive information of the geographer: but it is to be observed that his plan was not so much to give an account of Russia as of the reigning family. The line of Ruric was extinguished in 1598 by the poisoning of Theodore Iwanowitz; who had designated for his successor, or, in the Russian phrase, *offered his staff* to Theodore Nikilitz Romanow. Boris, the brother-in-law of Iwanowitz, usurped the empire to the prejudice of this young favourite, whom he compelled to take orders, and to assume the monastic habit under the name of Philaretes: but the odious manner in which Boris acquired the sovereignty, he being reproached by his own wife as the poisoner of her brother, occasioned a new revolution which deposed him. One Demetrius was employed as his antagonist, and inflicted on him the death of retribution by forcing him also to swallow poison: when the widow of Boris, attentive to Philaretes, whom she perhaps esteemed to be a relation, took him from the monastery, and obtained for him the archbishopric of Rostop. This Philaretes, who in all the circumstances of his trying life proved himself a man of patient virtues and of various merits, was father to the Michael who in 1613 was called to the Russian throne by the unanimous election of the nobility. An attempt has been made to attach the pedigree of Philaretes to a Prussian family; and this may be true on the mother's side: but, if the love of Iwanowitz, in designating him as heir of the empire, is not to be referred to parental affection for a natural son, to what class of predilections must it be referred? To one which in this country would be considered as vitiating the pedigree still more.

The elevation of Michael is thus narrated by the present author:

'*Mikhail Pheodorovitch Jouriff,* (*Grandfather of Peter the Great,*) *otherwise known by the Name of Michael Romanof.*

'The descent of this Prince from the house of Ruric is universally allowed: yet the particulars of this descent, the most industrious searches into the ancient archives can by no means determine.

'Lacombe indeed tells us, that his mother Maria Iconomasia was the daughter of Ivan Vassilievitch II.: but it seems more probable, as is asserted by several others, that he derived the blood of that ancient line from a daughter of the first, and not of the second Ivan Vassilievitch. And in fact the numerous pretensions to the crown on the score of affinity, the legality of which the Russians themselves could not decide, strongly corroborate the concurring testimony of almost all writers, on the very distant source, from whence Michael drew his lineage from that ancient dynasty, which for seven centuries had swayed the Russian sceptre. Yet it was the high estimation in which his family was ever held, and more especially his father Philaretes, that placed this sceptre in the hands of Michael. The young man himself at the time had merely attracted the notice of the nobles of Costroma, and its neighbourhood; and that only by a prudence unusual at his years, and the natural sweetness of his disposition.

'The elevation of this youthful sovereign may be considered as a truly singular circumstance: for it took place not only without his knowledge, but even in repugnance to his wishes. *

'When the deputies from Moscow, in order to tender him the homage and fealty of his subjects, repaired to Costroma, where he then resided, in the monastery Ipatski, under the care of his mother, the dreadful catastrophes which had befallen every monarch since the failure of the line of Ruric, and the wretched situation in which the failure of that line had placed Russia, presented

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'* L'Evesque, Coxe.'

sented themselves to his youthful imagination, more forcibly than all the splendors attendant on the offered dignity. His mother received the intelligence trembling, and in tears. This respected and long unfortunate female considered the throne but as a precipice, from which all, who for a long period had ventured to approach it, had been rudely precipitated. Maternal tenderness beheld, in the parade before her, only the dagger of the future conspirator. The representations, however, and entreaties of the deputies, and of Sheremetof, his uncle, united perhaps to the brighter prospects which royalty might occasionally present to the youthful imagination of Michael, were not without their influence; and the solemn declaration of the Metropolitan of Moscow, that heaven had announced to him, in a vision, that the son of Philaretes should be the most fortunate and happy of all the Tzars, overcame at length the resolution of both.

'Scarcely was he seated on the thone, when the citizens of Plescow delivered up a *Demetrius*, whose real name and origin are variously related, but who, for a few years, had made that city his capital. One of our poets somewhere speaks of

'That happy frailty, to all ranks allied,'

which gives

'Fear to the statesman, rashness to the chief,
To kings presumption, and to crowds belief.'

This audacious usurper had very readily assumed that *happy frailty*, characteristic of the monarch; nor had the people evinced less of *theirs* upon the occasion. This fourth Demetrius gave out, that heaven had constantly preserved him, although he had been assassinated at Uglitz, by the tyrant Boris; at Moscow, by Vassili Shuiski, the usurper; and again by a gang of Tartars afterwards. There were among the Russians who had faith in all these miracles. Could he have obtained a fourth in his favour, he had escaped the gibbet he now met with.

'Though faction and rebellion seemed to hide their head, the inveterate rancour of foreign enemies did but increase with the elevation of Michael; and continued wars, with both the Swedes and Poles were the consequence to his subjects. For the feeble — those who most need assistance, are but too certain to find only foes abound; and never was Russia more feeble, than when she placed the reins of government in the hands of Michael.

'Besides the pretensions of the indignant Ladislaus, (who once had been selected to fill this high office,) Charles Philip, the brother of the great Gustavus Adolphus, had likewise put in his claim to the Russian diadem, of which he had previously had the tender from the citizens of Novgorod, and the provinces bordering on those of Gustavus.

'With this warlike prince the Tzar at length concluded a peace, (Jan. 1616): but, to obtain it, was obliged to cede Ingria, and the whole country situated between Ingria * and Novgorod; and to

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'* The ministers of England and Holland, L'Evesque tells us, assisted with their good offices, to accomplish this treaty.'

sign a formal renunciation of Livonia, and Esthonia; in fine, of all, in those parts, that the sword of Peter the Great restored afterwards to the Russian sceptre. This important sacrifice, to which was superadded a sum of money, cut off all communication between Russia and the Baltic, and separated her more than ever from the rest of Europe. Nor could he procure much more favourable conditions from the Poles; to whom, at the peace, or fourteen years' truce, of Develina, (1619,) it was deemed necessary to confirm the possession of the duchy, and important town and citadel of Smolensk, taken in 1611 by Sigismond III.

'Subsequent wars, sieges, and treaties, were inadequate, during the lifetime of Michael, to reunite this part of his dominions. On his own side, these wars may be considered as entirely defensive. Those monarchs, who have been esteemed truly wise by posterity, have ever drawn the sword only to retain the buckler: and if Michael ever was the aggressor, it was to recover to Russia Smolensko, her ægis on the side of Poland; the want of which had once occasioned him the mortification, in the earlier part of his reign, of beholding his inveterate enemy at the very gates of his capital.

'It was in these latter wars, (waged against Ladislaus, the son of Sigismond,) that the Tzar was assisted by a body of English forces, sent by our unfortunate monarch, Charles I.* This, for the importance of the aid, scarcely merits notice. It merely serves to show the intimacy, which, even at this period, subsisted between the two countries. In fact, ever since the discovery of the port of Archangel, by Chancellor, in the preceding century †, the Tzars had inclined to court the friendship of the English sovereigns; and England had been favoured with more important commercial privileges than any other country, Holland only, at one period, excepted. ‡

'To the rest of Europe, Russia was less known then, than the Abyssinian empire or the Steppes of Tartary are at present.

'Michael survived the demise of his father, Philaretes, twelve years.

'Russia never remembered so good a prince.

'* We find also Alexander Leslie, an Englishman, commanding a body of 6000 Germans.'

'† 1533.'

'‡ In the public archives of the Khitaigorod, at Moscow, is still preserved an original letter, from Philip and Mary to Ivan Vassilievitch II., acknowledging the receipt of a dispatch, transmitted to England by his ambassador, Osef Nifia; and returning thanks for the privilege granted, of opening a free trade through the Russian dominions.

'This Tzar, some writers tell us, carried his respect for our Elizabeth so far, as to solicit the hand of that princess. His proposal of marrying the Lady Anne Hastings is, however, only named by Camden.'

'Under his assiduous cares, the bloody traces of preceding tyrants were obliterated. But whether the pacific disposition he evinced to neighbouring potentates, had its origin in the exigencies of the state, and the dictates of prudence, or in a natural antipathy to war, the amiable qualities of Michael render it difficult to determine. To his public virtues, his public conduct bears ample testimony. With regard to his private life; he was pious and temperate, and his manners are represented as mild, amiable, and engaging.

'His wife, Eudokia, did but survive his loss eight days. Bringing the Tzar no male issue for many years, political motives at one time induced him to think of a divorce; a privilege, under such circumstances, allowed to the Russian sovereigns.

'This princess possessed all the sweetness of temper, and unaffected piety of her husband; and her name is still dear to the Russians. She had been raised to the throne of a great empire, from a situation truly humble; and we are told, that the deputies sent to inform her father, a country gentleman of the name of Streshneve, of the circumstance, found him cultivating his fields, along with his domestics.'

This narrative is not only fuller and more satisfactory than that which closes the fourth chapter of Milton's brief history of Moscovy, but supplies some few circumstances that were overlooked in the more detailed and elaborate account contained in the tenth section of the thirty-first volume of the Modern Universal History. Still, it is only one of those ordinary abridgments of extant records, which display regular industry, pertinent information, and adequate eloquence. That sagacity, which disentangles the knots of history, is not called in to discuss the pretensions of the true or the false Demetrius; and that philosophic spirit, which assigns to every incident its appropriate consequence, is not pointing with its indicative wand. We advise the author, however, to continue his task, and to write anew the history of the prince miscalled by Voltaire Peter *the Great*. That French philosopher willingly praised the sovereigns who turned adventurers; well aware that he should thus pave the way for adventurers to turn sovereigns: but, if he had chosen to satirize Peter as a madman, posterity would perhaps as readily have ratified the verdict. Has a monarch nothing better to do than to put himself apprentice to a boat-builder in Holland? Is there no easier and surer way of teaching the art of ship-building to his subjects? — Or was it wise to shift his metropolis to Petersburg, and thus to condense population at a place at which agriculture, commerce, and every sort of productive industry, is necessarily paralytic, from climate, during more than one half of the year?

Peter ordered the introduction of Danish legislation, which, before Bernstorff, was the most despotic in Europe; and he wished to obtain the mastery over a nobility which resisted his pernicious caprices, instead of seeking to distribute civilization among the people through the medium of a travelled nobility. By attempting to skip this step in the natural progress of society, he delayed and deferred, a full half century, the possible march of Russian refinement. His military excellence, moreover, was inconsiderable; and, though his reforms in the ecclesiastical order approach expediency, yet the active patronage of the literature which existed in the Russian church would probably have conduced more to the progress of intellect, than a jealousy of the priesthood and an extinction of the patriarchate. The people were as yet alike unprepared to spare their beards or their priests.

As to the speeches put into Peter's mouth by Levesque, they are plainly manufactured before the Argand lamps of the Parisian book-makers. If he could have talked about arts and Greece and glory, surely he would not have waged an obstinate war of twenty-one years for deserts against Sweden; — surely he would not have been the executioner of his wife and of his son; — surely he would not have attempted the overthrow of that hereditary succession to the throne, which is one of the best reasons for the monarchical institution itself, and the best pledge for the personal security of the reigning individual.

Let us suppose that in every thing Peter had lived the reverse of his real life, and it will be obvious that Russia would have been more indebted to him. If, instead of a personal simplicity bordering on dirtiness, he had been luxurious and pompous in his apparel, the imitative nobility would have sent to Lyons for silks and velvet and embroidery; and, in order to meet the increased expenditure, they would have endeavoured to augment on their estates the growth of hemp, the smelting of iron, and the reserve of tallow and of hides. To personal ornament would have succeeded the decoration of their apartments; and the business of the carpenter, of the plaisterer, and of the upholsterer, would have been taught to the apprenticed vassals of all the nobles, thus domesticating the arts of life in every village. Had he increased the pomp of worship and the numbers of the clergy, and carefully rewarded the literati among them, an order of school-masters would have been distributed over his empire, who could alone have persuaded his stupid subjects to endure the toil of alphabetic learning, by teaching that prayers must be read aloud. Had he purchased by the cession of Lapland and Finland, and of the very site of Petersburg itself, a twenty-one years' *peace* of the Swedes, the population of his empire would in the mean while have doubled, the pioneers of desolation would have been making roads, and the architects of ruin would have built cities. The timber, not felled for pikes, would have become an article of commerce; for moveable camps, he would have seen stationary villages; and instead of murders he would have propitiated marriages. Had his metropolis been stationed near the mouth of the Don, a fertile soil, a climate which ripens two crops within the year, and an intercourse with the long-polished and luxurious Mediterranean nations, would have attracted colonies tutored in all the arts of industry, trade, taste, and civilization, and would have matured in his single reign a higher growth of prosperity than that which has taken place in a whole century on the banks of the Neva: — the rivers of the Euxine, branching far inland, would have wafted into the Caspian the productions of interchange; — and, which to "low ambition and the pride of kings" is perhaps of more consequence, the strength of empire, being accumulated in the south, would more speedily have blunted the horns of the crescent, and have restored Turkey to Christian sway.

ART. VI. *A Practical and Historical Treatise on Consumptive Diseases*, deduced from original Observations, and collected from Authors of all Ages. By Thomas Young, M.D. F.R. and L.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 500. 12s. Boards. Underwood, &c.

Dr. Young informs us, in his preface, that he has endeavoured to comprehend in this work every fact of importance which he has been able to observe, or to find recorded, respecting the nature and cure of the diseases which belong to the genus *consumption*; and for this task we believe him to be eminently adapted by his learning and his industry. His matter is arranged in two great divisions; the first intitled 'Practical Observations,' which must be supposed to contain the result of his own experience and that of his contemporaries; and to display a general view of the present state of opinions on the subject of consumption. The second book consists of the 'Medical History' of the disease, and, as the name imports, is composed entirely of an abstract of the opinions of his predecessors. Book I. is subdivided into seven chapters, in which are successively treated the following topics; the symptoms of hectic fever, the symptoms of decline, those of consumption, the morbid appearances in consumption, the causes of consumption, the treatment of consumption, and a dissertation on the medical effects of climate.

Our readers will be aware that the title of Dr. Young's work contains not a scientific designation of any one complaint, but adopts rather a popular term, which may be employed in different senses. He begins by defining the term 'consumptive diseases' to include all the species and varieties which are referred 'by Mead, Macbride, and many other authors, to the genus hectic fever;' and he prefers to make the fever the prominent feature in the character, because he conceives that there may be a consumptive disease without any of the viscera being specifically affected: but more especially because 'in all diseases, accompanied by a symptomatic or sympathetic fever of this kind, the fever is a better measure of the degree of constitutional affection, and of the chances of recovery, than any other assemblage of symptoms that can be put in competition with it.'

In order to shew the author's powers in that most valuable of all medical talents, the description of disease, we shall quote some parts of his account of hectic. 'The essential character of a hectic fever,' he says, 'consists in a frequent weak pulse, flushings in the face, the hands, or the feet, and profuse night-sweats, or diarrhœa. The state of the renal secretion is too various to assist in the distinction of the disease, except so far as it is influenced by that of the cutaneous exhalants.' The fever is then considered, and among its symptoms the state of the pulse and of the temperature is particularly described. 'The tongue,' it is observed, 'is seldom so much furred as is usual in most other febrile affections; its edges are generally of a bright red, and the papillæ swoln and prominent. Where, however, the biliary system is deranged, the tongue is generally covered with a white coat, which appears to be connected with some sympathetic affection of the stomach: while, in the most common kinds of hectic, the digestive powers are little impaired, and the appetite remains good to the last.' With respect to the daily exacerbation of the fever, Dr. Young discusses the point whether it be brought on by taking food, or whether it would occur at the same hour of the day independently of this circumstance. 'The exacerbations,' he says, 'are marked by a sensation of burning heat in the palms of the hands, which become red and mottled, and frequently in the soles of the feet: there is also a circumscribed redness in the cheeks, particularly in persons of a delicate and florid complexion; and in such persons, the colour constantly present in the cheeks, during the remission, has also a more abrupt termination, and a brighter tint, than in the state of perfect health.' The sweat and diarrhœa are then noticed, and afterward all those symptoms which are indicative of the last stage of bodily weakness.

'In the more advanced period of the disease, as the emaciation increases, the bulbs of the hair no longer perform their secretory functions, and the hair falls off; the bulbs, however, remain unimpaired, and resume their functions, if the health becomes fully restored: but they require some time to recover their activity; and in my own case, the hair continued to fall off, when the other hectic symptoms were materially abated. The nails become bent, apparently from a similar deficiency of nourishment; the secretion at the middle of the nail only continuing as usual, while the edges are a little more slowly supplied with new matter; so that the curvature follows, as a necessary consequence of the comparative contraction of the edges: and this change is sometimes accompanied by considerable pain, which would hardly happen, if the nail simply adapted its form to the contracted dimensions of the membranous parts beneath it, as some authors have supposed.'

The remote causes of the disease are various, 'but the exciting cause of hectic is almost always some local disease, and generally a great, if not an incurable one; so that this fever seems to be a feeble and hopeless struggle of a constitution about to be overpowered, without any apparent tendency to the removal of the cause.'

In the next chapter, we enter on some nosological discussions respecting the species into which the genus *hectic* should be divided; and the author finally decides on the four following; viz. simple decline, independently of any organic disease, an affection confessedly of rare occurrence;—intestinal decline, a kind of marasmus or tabes, in which, without any glandular tumour, the digestive functions are impaired or suspended;—hectic, accompanied by and arising from enlarged glands;—and hectic produced by suppuration. We now arrive at the symptoms of the proper pulmonary consumption, which are, on the whole, described in a correct and characteristic manner: but it is not a subject on which we are to look for novelty; and indeed the chief merit which we can expect is a judicious selection from the multifarious and accumulated labours of others. It appears to us that the author attaches too much importance to the method proposed by Mr. Abernethy, of determining the degree of the mechanical obstruction of the lungs by ascertaining their actual capacity; and perhaps on some other points of a trifling nature too much dependence is placed. We shall, however, pass over this chapter, and the two which follow, in order to enter a little more at large into an examination of the directions which are given for the treatment of the disease. In the first place, Dr. Young begins by impressing on the mind of the practitioner the great importance of seizing the earliest moment of time for employing his remedies; since it remains a question, yet undecided, whether any single case of fully formed pulmonary consumption was ever cured. On this point he makes the ensuing remarks:

'It is probable that without assistance not one case in a thousand of the disease would recover; and with the utmost power of art perhaps not more than one in a hundred will be found curable. However discouraging this representation may be on the one hand, it is still some consolation, supposing it correct, to think, on the other hand, that ten times as many lives may be saved by medical treatment as without it: and we may be induced, by this statement, to argue with extreme caution respecting the comparative value of the medicines which we may think proper to prescribe: for since the utmost that we can expect from the operation of the most powerful remedies is to save one out of a hundred cases of confirmed consumption, we must have witnessed the failure of any new mode of treatment in at least fifty cases, before we are fully authorised to suppose, that it has been less successful than the most effectual remedies previously known; and even if we admit the number of curable cases to be somewhat greater than is here assumed, the general inference from the argument will not be materially altered.'

It is always important to hold up to the mind some definite object, which we should attempt to accomplish; and this is more especially the case in a disease in which such a multitude of remedies have been employed, often contradictory in their operation, and in which it is almost impossible but that some of them must have been injurious. Dr. Young, proceeding on the supposition that in the first stage tubercles exist in the lungs which afterward degenerate into ulcers, lays down as the indications to be the guides of practice, first, the resolution of the tubercles, and, secondly, the healing of the ulcers; to which he adds the more general objects of moderating inflammation in the commencement, and supporting debility in the progress of the complaint. How far the first two indications are possible, or in what degree they can ever be accomplished, are points that admit of much doubt: but we are not prepared to substitute any more rational plan in their room; and we must admit that the author's observations concerning them are candid and judicious.

'For promoting the resolution of preternatural structures, we frequently employ bleeding, emetics, cathartics, mercurials, and other sorbefacients, besides epispastics of various kinds: for obviating the symptoms of inflammation, we generally bleed and evacuate in various ways, and prescribe a low diet: for healing ulcers, we sometimes apply local remedies, producing a slight excitement, but depend most on general medicines, especially tonics, which are at the same time the best calculated for removing debility. Such would be the modes of treatment which would most naturally be adopted, upon theoretical or general principles; and if we judge from the result of more direct experience only we shall find that the most successful practice has actually consisted in the appropriate administration of bleeding, emetics, epispastics, and abstinence, followed by tonics of various kinds.'

The different classes of remedies, which at various times have obtained any share of celebrity, are then reviewed in succession, and some remarks are made on their respective merits. They are arranged under the heads of bleeding, cathartics, emetics, sorbefacients, epispastics, sudorifics, expectorants, demulcents, narcotics, suppuratories, astringents, tonics, diet, exercise, and climate. It will not be in our power to follow Dr. Young through the whole range of inquiry into which the subject naturally leads him; nor is it to be expected that we should always agree with him, on so many points on which a great difference of opinion has existed: but we think that his observations may be perused with advantage, and will probably suggest some useful hints even to those whose minds are previously well stored with practical knowlege. We shall endeavour to condense his most important remarks into a small compass.

Dr. Young considers general bleeding as a valuable remedy at the commencement of the disease, especially if there be hæmoptysis; and benefit may also sometimes be gained by topical bleeding of the chest. Cathartics will co-operate with the bleeding, and are also especially proper in hæmoptysis. When the diarrhœa of hectic is accompanied with pain, and resists the action of astringents, small doses of calomel are sometimes found useful. Emetics have been much employed in consumption, and are supposed to possess the power of promoting absorption; of these medicines, ipecacuan is on all accounts preferred, and is deemed a very valuable remedy in diarrhœa, dysentery, and hæmoptysis. It is even conceived that any beneficial effect, which has resulted in some cases from digitalis, might have been better obtained by the use of ipecacuan. Mercury, when taken so as not to act on the bowels, does not appear to be either decidedly useful or the contrary; and the advantage that may be derived from alkalies is also uncertain: but no doubt can be entertained of the good effects of blisters. Sudorifics are valuable, as diminishing febrile heat and checking partial sweats. The action of expectorants, and what have been called vulneraries, or suppuratories, is doubtful in theory and uncertain in practice. Of the astringents, the sulphuric acid has a powerful effect in removing the night-sweats, and seems even to have cured a hectic while in a recent state: by a proper addition of aromatics and opium, it may be generally made to agree with the bowels; the vegetable astringents are also useful in the diarrhœa, although their operation is chiefly palliative. As to tonics, the Peruvian bark has, in some few instances, been found salutary at the commencement of the disease, and perhaps it is seldom injurious afterward, yet it is not generally beneficial. Angustura is probably, on the whole, preferable. When a languid circulation accompanies the pectoral complaints, steel may be employed. With respect to diet, Dr. Y. decidedly condemns all attempts at producing the full nutritive system, and forbids wine, fermented liquors, and animal food, except in some rare cases.

Three quarters of the volume still remain, containing the 'Medical History' of consumption; in which an account of the opinions and practice of every writer, who has touched on the disease, from Hippocrates down to the present period, are brought in succession before us. Of the value of this compilation, different opinions will be entertained; some persons will feel that it is desirable to possess all that has ever been said on the subject in this abridged form; while many others will probably regard it as little better than mere literary lumber. We think that this record of opinions is not altogether without its use, and that it may serve one practical purpose of obvious importance; — it may prevent the repetition of experiments which have already been tried and found of no avail. Yet we conceive that, whatever be its real value, it will obtain few readers in comparison with the former part; and it is perhaps to be regretted that the size and price of the volume are so much increased as they have necessarily been by this copious appendage.

ART. VII. Dr. Brown's (Prize) *Essay on the Existence of a Supreme Creator, &c. &c.*

ART. VIII. Mr. Sumner's (Prize) *Treatise on the Records of the Creation, &c. &c.*

[*Art. concluded from p.* 183.]

IN our last Number, we exhibited to the reader an analysis of the Essay of Dr. Brown, to whom the first of Mr. Burnett's prizes was adjudged. Mr. Sumner, whose work we *now* proceed to examine, has followed a very different plan from that of his competitor, and from that which Mr. Burnett evidently intended to point out. He prescribed to his candidates that they should first produce that evidence of the being and attributes of God which the light of nature furnishes, and reply to the objections against these doctrines, independently of *written revelation*; yet Mr. Sumner has composed a 'Treatise on the *Records* of the Creation:' — Mr. Burnett speaks only of the revelation of Jesus Christ; yet nearly the whole of the first volume of Mr. Sumner's treatise is occupied with the evidences of Judaism: — according to the founder's will, the whole discussion was to be terminated by a statement of the most important practical inferences deducible from it; and Mr. Sumner, after having devoted a great part of his second volume to the principle of population, has indeed allotted a very brief chapter to this important portion of the subject; yet even of this the larger share is occupied with the consideration of objections which belong more properly to preceding branches of the inquiry. These departures from the prescribed course concern the public, it is true, less than the author and his judges; and that the latter felt and acted on the objection which arises from them we infer from their having awarded the first prize to a production of less ability, but preserving a better arrangement and proportion of parts.

Mr. Sumner thus vindicates the selection of his topics and the disposition of his materials:

> 'If it is hopeless to look out for a vacant spot in a district so fully occupied, the next object is to fix upon ground which stands most in need of farther cultivation. This view of the subject determined me, among the various lines of argument which all tend to the same point, to rest my principal evidence of the existence of the Creator upon the credibility of the Mosaic records of the creation.
>
> 'I am aware that it may appear, at first sight, an objection to this plan, that it carries us away from natural theology. But, if it does so, we are only following the course to which the subject itself must lead every reflecting mind. That there is a Creator,
>
> 'All Nature cries aloud in all her works;
>
> but Nature has always proclaimed the same truth, yet she spoke in vain to the sages of antiquity, who either altogether failed to interpret her language, or suffered the still whisper of "Divine Philosophy" to be lost amidst the various bustle of the world. It is true, we understand astronomy better than Thales or Pythagoras, and natural history and anatomy better than Aristotle or Galen: the treatises of Ray, or Derham, or Paley, could not have been written two thousand years ago; but the ancients, imperfect as their sciences were, knew more than enough of the harmony and design of the universe to draw out an unanswerable argument from

final causes: and in point of fact, they did draw out both that and other arguments so far as to leave us indisputable proof that the God of natural theology will never be any thing more than the dumb idol of philosophy: neglected by the philosopher himself, and unknown to the multitude; acknowledged in the closet, and forgotten in the world.

'The real use of Natural Theology is to show the strong probability of that being true which Revelation declares. For, when Natural Theology has told all her story, the reasonable question presses us still, Has, then, the Creator, whose existence you point out so clearly, maintained no communication with this visible emanation of his power? Has he revealed no commands, and prescribed no worship to the human race? Then he remains the inactive deity of philosophic theism; the indifferent spectator of the crimes, the virtues, the cares, and the sorrows of mankind.'

Had Mr. S. confined himself to the reason which he first alleges, viz. the difficulty of finding any ground not occupied by some preceding writer, we should have admitted the force of his plea: but we can by no means assent to his observations on the relation which natural and revealed religion bear to one another. It is true that philosophical theism has never done much to diffuse piety and virtue among the mass of mankind; its abstract reasonings are not suited to their comprehension; they require the authority of a command and the simplicity of historical evidence to engage their faith and govern their conduct; and our sense of the value of Revelation is heightened by the conviction, that we not only owe to it the knowlege of many truths which unassisted reason could never have attained, but the practical influence of those which the light of nature could discover. It would therefore be absurd in the public teacher of religion to be for ever "laying the foundation anew," and quitting "the 'vantage-ground" of Scripture to prove the being and attributes of God from natural theology. Yet, in that orderly and gradual developement of truth which we reasonably expect in a systematic treatise, natural theology ought unquestionably to precede Revelation. "*He that cometh to God must believe that he is;*" and a conviction that the moral and intellectual frame of man are the work of superior intelligence, that his present duties and his future destination arise out of the will and depend on the decrees of God, must be established before we can even feel an interest in the inquiry whether he has revealed any thing respecting these duties and this destination. Moreover, a belief in the being of God is a necessary preliminary to the admission of that evidence on which the proof of every revelation rests, the evidence of miracles. The sceptical objection of *Hume* would, as it appears to us, be unanswerable without a previous recognition of the principal doctrines of natural theology. If we believed what are called the laws of nature to be nothing else than the ascertained succession of phænomena, in the production and connection of which intelligence and design had no part, we could not refuse to admit that their uniformity furnished a stronger presumption against the reality of miracles, which imply a violation of them, than any human testimony could counterbalance. An atheist, therefore, must remain an atheist in spite of the evidence of Revelation. If, however, it be once admitted that the laws of nature are nothing more than the *ordinary* modes of operation of the Deity, (the light in which philosophical theism teaches us to regard them,) the objection of Hume loses all its force when it can be shewn that the same motives of benevolence and wisdom, which dictate their general observance, may also dictate an occasional departure from them. Consequently, to degrade natural theology is really to injure the evidence of Revelation. — In the concluding remarks of the paragraph which we have quoted, Mr. S. speaks as if it were impossible even to believe in Providence without a revealed system of faith and worship: but surely a Deity who is 'the indifferent spectator of the crimes, the virtues, the cares, and the sorrows of mankind' is the Deity of a very *unphilosophic* theism, — the god of Epicurus, not of Socrates.

In the first and second chapters, the author examines the opinion of the eternity of the world and of its formation by chance, and shews convincingly the absurdity of either of these suppositions. Of the third chapter, which, with its subdivisions, occupies nearly the whole remainder of the first volume, the general object is thus stated:

> 'The preceding survey of two out of the three accounts which have been at different times proposed to explain the phenomenon of an existing world, though brief and rapid, may be sufficient to make it appear, that neither its independent eternal existence, nor its fortuitous production, furnish any thing like a satisfactory solution of the problem. In particular, the undeniable appearance of innumerable instances of design throughout the universe in all its parts, irreconcilable with our experience of chance-effect; and the existence of sentient beings, endued with a faculty of voluntary reflection and motion which does not belong to unorganized or mere vegetable matter; lead us insensibly to the only solution which remains to be adduced, the operation of an Immaterial Intelligent Creator. I proceed, therefore, to inquire more particularly into the evidence that may exist of such actual creation, in addition to the incidental probability arising from the undisputed existence of a world, and the difficulty of ascribing its existence to any other origin.

'Now, it cannot be denied that this probability would be counterbalanced by a formidable objection on the opposite side, if, after the diligent inquiry which an inhabitant of the world might be expected to make concerning the formation of the globe to which he belongs, no records were found to have been left of its author, or original constitution. Suppose it granted, for the present, that a Creator exists; only two suppositions can be entertained: either man was turned naked and ignorant into the world, with less power to provide for his comfort and subsistence than the lowest savage whom modern discoveries have brought to our acquaintance; or he was instructed, through the agency of his Creator, in the means of supplying his immediate wants, and of performing the various purposes of his being.

'If we embrace the first of these suppositions, we must believe that this world, and all it contains, was created without any definite or assignable object: that its intelligent inhabitants were summoned into life, and then immediately abandoned by their Maker, retaining no connexion with him, either during the short period of their earthly existence, or after it. If we reject this idea, as inconsistent with all reasoning as to the probable operations of Divine intelligence; then it is natural to conclude that the Creator would leave some memorial of himself in a world, which, as forming a part in the comprehensive scheme of his providence, he beholds with regard and interest. It is evident, however, that as mankind alone, of all the inhabitants of the earth, are gifted with intelligence, mankind alone can hold any connexion with an intelligent Creator. To them therefore we must look as the chief objects of creation, and as the depositaries with whom the records of it, supposing such an event to have taken place, would be left, to be handed down by them from age to age.'

In this passage, we remark a want of discrimination and logical accuracy. If it be absurd, as Mr. Sumner says, to suppose that man was turned into the world without the means of supplying his wants, the natural conclusion is that the Deity who made him taught him to till the ground and prune the trees, shewed him the use of fire, and enabled him to communicate with his fellows by the arts of speech and writing:—but what has all this to do with the existence of a written record of the creation, and the primæval history of our species? In order to effect any connection between Mr. Sumner's premises and his conclusion, the first eleven chapters of the book of Genesis should have contained a revelation of the arts and sciences most necessary for the preservation and progressive improvement of mankind. It is, indeed, as improbable that the human race should have been left without any means or motives for acquiring a knowlege of their Creator, as that they should have been abandoned to perish by cold and hunger: but Mr. S. cannot intend to deny that any sentiments *of religion* can exist except through a written record of the creation. The declaration of St. Paul would be decidedly against him: "*For the invisible things of him from the creation of the world are clearly seen, being understood by the things that are made, even his eternal power and Godhead: so that they are without excuse.*" Rom. i. 20. How could they be "without excuse" who had never heard of the Jewish record of the creation, if that knowlege, which they are condemned for not possessing, were only to be obtained by the perusal of this record? Admitting, what we are very ready to admit, that it was desirable that some direct communication should be made of the being and unity of God, and that therefore such a revelation as the Mosaic is antecedently probable, still this proves nothing with respect to the detailed account of the creation which begins the book of Genesis, since it forms no part of the law of Moses, to which alone the attestation of his miracles applies.

Mr. S., indeed, in the paragraph following our last extract, says that the book of Genesis professes to have been written by Moses, the leader and law-giver of the Jews. Whether it were so, or not, is a matter of opinion, but its *professing* to be so is a question of fact in respect to which Mr. Sumner's assertion is very incautious, the book itself containing nothing that can help us even to guess at the author; and we presume that he is too good a critic to argue from the title. We would allow all due force to the argument derived from the opinion of the Jews, who have attributed this book, as well as the four which succeed it, to their law-giver: but centuries intervene between the time at which we can first trace the existence of this opinion, or even of the book itself, and the age of Moses; — centuries, too, not of the cultivation of literature and criticism, but of the turbulent and barbarous condition of society which the settlement of the Israelites in Canaan and their subjugation by foreign powers produced. In this dark period of the Jewish history, the chain of tradition, as it respects the book of Genesis, is completely broken: the passages in Joshua and the following books in which *the law* is mentioned, and which are frequently (even by so acute a critic as Eichhorn) alleged to prove the existence of the Pentateuch immediately after the age of Moses, do not bear in the least on the authenticity of Genesis, or, if any argument can be drawn from them, rather bear against it. From the passages in which *the law* is introduced, it is evident that this law was a volume of Mosaic ordinances; and had a body of Mosaic history also existed, why should not it too have been quoted, or allusion been made to it? The allusions which are found in the book of Genesis to the conquest of Canaan, and to the existence of royalty in

Israel, may have been added in transcribing, but the tenth chapter cannot have been written in the time of Moses. Asiatic Greece was not known by the name of Ionia, (Gen. x. 2.) nor European Greece by that of Hellas, (x. 4.) till many ages afterward, unless we deny that the most judicious Grecian historians knew any thing of the antiquities of their country.

Theologians have gratuitously ascribed to the historical books of Scripture an inspiration which their authors are very far from claiming, though they themselves are the only persons who could give a satisfactory testimony to the possession of such aid. They quote the poetical volumes which contained the heroic history of the Jewish people, (Josh. x. 13.) and the original documents which they have extracted or abridged, (Kings, *passim*); they allude to other histories of the same events as those which they were about to relate; and they place their own credibility on their human means of knowlege, (Luke, i. 3.) without any claim to that inspiration, either of suggestion or superintendence, (to use the technical language,) the possession of which would have rendered frivolous all appeals to these inferior and imperfect sources of evidence. With regard to the book of Genesis, the proofs that it has originated in the same way with other historical works, and not from inspiration, are peculiarly strong. Eichhorn, following the traces of Astruc and others, has shewn that a great portion of it has been formed by the actual incorporation of two written documents previously existing, and still susceptible of separation by means of the difference in the appellations given to the Deity. If the inspiration of the history thus formed is still to be maintained, to whom does it belong? — to the unknown authors of the incorporated documents, or to the equally unknown compiler?

We have, then, no proof that the book of Genesis was composed with any supernatural aid: its credibility must rest, like that of every other historical writing, on the internal probability of the events which it relates, combined with the degree of evidence which from the nature of the case could exist with respect to each of them; and a rational faith will proportion itself to the varying degree in which the book in question exhibits these two essential ingredients of historical probability. It is impossible that every circumstance, in a history extending through 2500 years, should be preserved with equal accuracy; and the difference between the part which precedes and that which follows the calling of Abraham, — where we reach a period within which tradition might preserve a faithful record, and a series of events which the Jews were *peculiarly* interested in retaining, — must be obvious, we think, to every careful reader. When we compare the cosmogony, the history of the deluge, and other parts of the book of Genesis, with the corresponding portions of profane philosophy and history, we see clearly that the people among whom they originated had enjoyed means of religious knowlege which their most cultivated neighbours did not possess: but we also find, in the peculiar form under which these truths are presented to us, a mixture of the characteristic conceptions of the age, the country, and the people to which they belong. The accommodation of the period of creation to the Jewish institution of the sabbath; the allegory of the fall of man; the *paranomasiæ* on Hebrew words which every where occur, as if that had been the primæval language of mankind; the supposition that the name of every nation was derived from some individual progenitor who bore it; the deduction of the Canaanites from the accursed stock of Ham, while the evidence of language decidedly proves them to have belonged to the great Semitic family; the narrow chronology of the interval between Abraham and the flood, which leaves a time wholly inadequate to that diffusion of the species and that progress of civilization which had taken place in the patriarch's days; all these things constitute formidable objections to the inspiration or the infallible accuracy of the book of Genesis, but they touch nothing that is essential to the proof of the divine mission of Moses. The soundness or the fallacy of the philosophical, historical, or geographical opinions of the authors of those documents, out of which this book has been formed, cannot affect the evidence which the separate existence of the Jewish people, the wisdom of their laws, and the sublimity and purity of their morals and theology, afford to prove that they must have been set apart from other nations, and instructed in the great truths of religion in some supernatural manner.

At the present day, when opinions are no longer received on prescription, it is of the first importance that the advocate of revelation should distinctly understand what it is essential for him to maintain; — that he should concentrate his forces for the defence of those places which he cannot yield without defeat, and not expose a straggling and vulnerable line to his opponents. Unless we have very much mistaken the existing state of historical and scientific knowlege, to connect the literal truth of Jewish cosmogony and primæval history with the divine origin of Judaism is to commit this fault; and an author, who does this, provokes the scepticism of the enlightened while he is attempting to obtain the belief of the multitude. We make this remark without the least intention of reflecting on the sincerity of Mr. Sumner, or of any other writer who believes the inspiration and literal truth of the book of Genesis: but we are persuaded that incredulity with respect to things which are susceptible of proof is the natural consequence of these unfounded claims on our belief; and, convinced as we are of the divine origin of the Jewish revelation and its essential connection with the Christian, we are anxious to enter our protest against the indiscretion of its advocate. We may wish, perhaps, that there had not been a mixture of human ideas and imperfections with the records of divine truth, but that is not the question: if we would be believed at all, we must advance no pretensions which we cannot substantiate. In addressing individuals whose peculiar habits he knows, especially if practical instruction be his object, every man may judge how far the statement of his doubts is advisable; truth disclosed imperfectly, and without its proper connection, becomes error to those who receive it in this way: but, in addressing the public, this accommodation and reserve should be dismissed, and it should be considered as criminal to extinguish or to hide the smallest spark of truth.

Mr. Sumner thinks that the art of speech must have been one of those which man learned by immediate communication from God, because speech is purely imitative, and therefore cannot have *begun* among men, since we must arrive at last at an individual to whom no other could have served as a model.

> 'It was the aim of Dr. Smith's most agreeable treatise upon this subject, to show how "savages who had never been taught to speak, would begin to form a language by which they might make their mutual wants intelligible to each other, by uttering certain sounds, whenever they meant to denote certain objects." Modern observations, however, have proved with sufficient certainty, that speech is purely imitative, and that men would have remained without the power of communicating their sentiments, as long as they remained without the means of instruction. It is well known that those, who, with their organs of speech perfect, have been unfortunately deaf from their birth, are never brought to utter articulate sounds by any efforts of their own; but, if taught at all to do so, effect it by imitating the motion of the lips in others. Whoever has watched the progress of speech in children, will have found that it is not dependent upon the gradual enlargement of their ideas, since they always understand much more and earlier than they can express; but upon the facility, acquired by degrees, of adapting the organs of speech to the expression of certain sounds. A child which first begins to join words together, shows manifestly by its slow, imperfect, and abrupt articulation, wherein the difficulty lies: *and the* knowledge recently obtained from the benevolent exertions

of the Abbé Sicard, in France, has placed this matter beyond all reasonable doubt.*'

It is remarkable, however, that the only passage in the book of Genesis, which alludes to the origin of language, represents Adam as himself the author of it: Gen. ii. 19. Dr. Magee, indeed, to whom Mr. S. refers, would interpret the animals being brought to Adam by God, to mean *that he might see what he would call them*; and their bearing the names which he gave them, to mean that God taught Adam what names he should give them: but it is scarcely fair, because we find difficulties in explaining an author's words, to take them in the directly opposite sense to that which their grammatical construction shews they were meant to convey. Much of the difficulty, which has been supposed to occur in the formation of language, has been raised in consequence of the arbitrary and improbable hypothesis that mankind existed in large numbers, and in a state of diffusion, before it was invented; in which case it would indeed be hard to say how a set of conventional vocal signs could ever be introduced among them: but, if the use of language spread from the first parents of the species with the progressive multiplication of their descendants, each race learning it from the preceding, the whole difficulty is reduced to this: how should two human beings ever come to communicate their ideas to each other by articulate sounds, if man never makes such sounds except from imitation? Now speech, although purely imitative, is not imitative of speech alone; since the multitude of words in all languages which have been evidently framed to represent noises, motions, actions, &c., either by direct imitation or by analogy, proves the disposition of mankind to imitate with their organs the sounds proceeding from the objects about them. It is true that words of this description are few when compared with the whole body of a language: but it should be considered that the radicals of even the most copious tongues are also few; and that a word originally imitative of sound might branch out into an almost endless series of derivative, figurative, and analogical meanings. Let us take the instance of a word originally designed like the Latin *flo*, *fleo*, or *fluo*, to express to the ear the motion of a fluid, and which is therefore not an arbitrary but a natural sign; what

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'* See an interesting account in Yorke's Letters from France, 1804. In the school of this distinguished philanthropist was a girl of seventeen, who, having lost her hearing at six years of age, had a vocabulary of such words and ideas as could be attained by that time of life, but no farther.'

a multitude of ideas, themselves also the prolific parents of new terms, such as force, velocity, time, impulse, abundance, &c., would this one root express? If we can thus manifest that a vocal sign of one idea might be chosen between two of our species without supernatural aid, the *dignus vindice nodus* in the invention of language disappears altogether, since that which had once been done might be repeated. Rude and defective, no doubt, this primæval language must have been; yet the progression appears not longer from these feeble beginnings to the most imperfect language with which we are acquainted, than from that of the most polished. If human ingenuity could improve the structure of language, from the loosely piled monosyllables of the Chinese to the exquisite *reticulation* of the Greek, why should we suppose divine aid to be necessary for hewing the stones in the first instance from the rock? When the organic part of the invention of speech is explained, the metaphysical will create no difficulty. Dr. Magee, indeed, in the passage to which Mr. S. refers, (Disc. on Atonement, &c. ii. 46—63.) objects to Adam Smith's account of the manner in which proper names become general, by our perception of the generic resemblance which the objects denoted bear to each other: but the objection is unworthy of an author who is so unmerciful as Dr. Magee to the logical inaccuracies of others. A child, he says, may give the name of *father* to an individual like to the person whom it has been taught to call by that name, but this is from mistake, not by design; from a confusion of the two as the same person, not through a perception of resemblance while they are known to be different; and the child will most peremptorily retract the appellation of father as soon as the distinctness is perceived. This is true: but, though he is a wise son who (as Homer says) knows his own father, he must be very dull who does not soon learn that he has but one. The whole force of the objection lies in the choice of a word, as an example, which from its very nature is exclusive.

Mr. Sumner now proceeds to point out the object of the Hebrew polity, which he shews to have been the preservation of the doctrine of the unity of God and the creation of the world by him; and he compares the institutions and doctrines of the Jewish prophet with those of the most celebrated heathen legislators and founders of states, illustrating his superiority over them by the purity of his theology, and the close connection of those religious truths, which the Mosaic dispensation was designed to preserve, with the whole frame of his political and religious ordinances. We cannot expect complete originality on a topic so often treated, but Mr. S. is no servile

copyist

copyist of his predecessors, and he has placed some parts of the argument in a light peculiarly clear and forcible. In the subsequent passage, he is arguing that Moses must have possessed a consciousness of his own inspiration from the nature of those sanctions by which he enforces the obedience of the people,—by promises and threats of immediate, temporal, and national prosperity or calamity, according as they observed or neglected the statutes of the Lord.

'It would seem an idle waste of words if I were to set about proving systematically, that this is not a skilful adaptation of the regular laws of Providence, deduced from an attentive observation of the general course of divine government, and applied to the sanction of a code pretending to divine authority. No one indeed, admitting the agency of a Creator, can doubt that a general providence ordains the series of events, and that a particular providence superintends the inferior agents by whose instrumentality they are brought about: but no one can follow the path, or trace the steps of its operation. Look through a body of individuals; who will venture to assign their success to their moral virtues, or their misfortunes to their guilt? Still more, survey the nations of the world: is it possible to estimate the degree of their idolatry by their comparative barrenness, or to find any proportion preserved between their natural fertility and their moral merits? The result of observation and experience is, that the good and the bad, the wheat and the tares, grow up together till the harvest, and that the sun shines and the rain falls on the just and unjust without discrimination: this inequality being in fact essential to a probationary state, which supposes all exactness of retributive justice to be reserved for another.

'If, then, such is the actual and undeniable course of things, no rational impostor, intending to devise a constitution for an infant people, would have rested its stability on a violation of that course, or sanctioned his laws upon a presumption of supernatural interference, unauthorized by the order of nature, and contradicted by every day's experience. It is indeed possible that he might, in general terms, have instructed his people to depend upon the divine blessing, whilst they obeyed the laws proposed to them, and to dread divine vengeance, as the certain consequence of disobedience. He might have gone as far as Zaleucus, in saying that "every one ought to labour all he can to become good, both in practice and principle, whereby he will render himself acceptable to the Deity." But he never could have proposed this invisible arm as the primary instrument of success, or minister of punishment; or have rested such entire dependence on the divine agency, as to expect it to supersede the usual means of victory, or national defence.'

The author next compares the language which heathen philosophers and poets have used respecting the unity and providence of God, with that of the Jewish Scriptures; satisfactorily manifesting that in the former the occasional glimmering of a rational philosophy, through a cloud of idolatry and polytheism, is in the latter a clear and steady light. When he says that the Roman poets have left us *nothing* that can be produced on this subject, he must have forgotten the address of Cato to Labienus in the ninth book of the Pharsalia: "*Jupiter est quodcunque vides, quocunque moveris.*" This perhaps may be said to countenance the stoical error of confounding the Deity with the universe: but many Christian poets might be convicted of pantheism if their words were as rigorously interpreted. Mrs. Barbauld has taken this very line for the motto of her sublime address to the Deity, without any intention, certainly, of identifying the Creator with the objects of our senses.

The proof of the divine origin of the Mosaic dispensation is not, however, complete without evincing that the Jewish law-giver could not have borrowed his doctrine of the unity and providence of God from any contemporary theology or philosophy. Some circumstances may at first sight render it less wonderful that these doctrines should have been made the basis of a national religion, fifteen centuries before the Christian æra, than in ages in which the human mind had been more cultivated by literature and philosophy. Notwithstanding the sophistries and mis-representations of Hume, in his celebrated Natural History of Religion, for which Warburton adjudged him to the pillory, it is certain that polytheism was not the primitive religion of mankind. As we ascend to the earliest periods of history, we find them — with an inconsistency which would be inexplicable had the progress of religious opinion been such as he represents — improving in the purity of their faith and worship, while every other stream of knowlege becomes more scanty and corrupt. The same people, who, when learning, taste, and philosophy were at their height, filled their cities with idols outnumbering their inhabitants, and deified every object and every energy of nature, knew that their barbarous ancestors had worshipped in the silent majesty of the grove of Dodona a deity without an image or a partner of his power.* The history of other nations demonstrates the same fact, and warrants us in concluding both that monotheism is of older standing than polytheism, and that the first effect of philosophy was rather to corrupt than to refine their traditionary belief. It may, therefore, seem that it is no proof of the divine origin of Judaism that it proscribes every species of idolatry, and teaches a rational doctrine of the nature of God. Moses may only have established, and protected by law, a belief which already prevailed among his countrymen; he had received his early education in Egypt, and had learned the esoteric doctrine of its priests, which inculcated the unity and spirituality of God; while the people were left to all that grossness of superstition which degraded them even in the eyes of idolaters themselves. Mr. S. discusses, in his ninth section, the probability that Moses deduced his theology from either of these sources: but the real nature of the Egyptian religion in the earliest times deserved a more careful examination than he has given to it, because this is the only source from which it can with any plausibility be alleged that the Mosaic doctrine has been derived. He makes one vague reference (p. 221. vol. i.) to the Pantheon of Jablonsky, but he takes no notice of the opinion of that writer that the antient theology of Egypt taught the existence of a spiritual deity: "*Primum utique theologiæ veteris et cultûs Egyptiorum objectum fuit* νοητὸν, *naturæ spiritualis, adeòque sensibus non obnoxium, sed solâ vi intellectûs cognoscendum. Agnoverunt nempe primi inter Egyptios sapientiæ magistri, esse Spiritum aliquem ingenitum, æternum, omnibus rebus quæ existunt prius*, (priorem?) *qui omnia creaverit, omnia conservet, omnia contineat, omnia permeet atque vivificet, qui sit spiritus totius mundi, hominum vero custos et benefactor.*" (Jablonsky, Panth. Eg. Prolegomena xlvi.) The authority of so learned an investigator of Egyptian antiquities is intitled to great respect: but, when he comes to treat of the ϑεοι νοητοι of their theology, which he does in his first book, we think that he by no means establishes his own statement; and the remarks which Mr. Sumner has made on the difference between the monotheism of Moses and the Grecian philosophers are equally applicable to the Egyptian:

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* See Herod. II. 52. with the just observations of Mr. Mitford, Hist. of Greece, I. 105. 8vo.

> 'To a large proportion of those who hold a distinguished rank among the ancient theistical philosophers, viz. the disciples of Pythagoras, Aristotle, and Zeno, this idea of the *personality* of the Deity was in a great measure unknown. The Deity, by these philosophers, was considered not so much an intelligent Being, as an *animating power*, diffused throughout the world; and was introduced into their speculative system to account for the motion of that passive mass of matter which was supposed coëval, and, indeed, co-existent with himself. "God is not," according to a disciple of Pythagoras, "exterior to the world, as some conjecture; but entire in himself, pervades the universal sphere; superintends all productions, is the support of all nature; eternal; the source

of all power; the first simple principle of all things; the origin of celestial light; the father of all; the mind and animating principle of the universe; the first mover of all the spheres." The air of apparent sublimity conveyed by passages like this, when viewed independently of the system to which they belonged, has attached a greater credit to those systems than, on a closer examination, they will be found to deserve.'

In order to display more strongly the improbability that Moses should have borrowed from the secret wisdom of the Egyptian priests, Mr. S. observes that he would in all likelihood have imitated them in concealing his doctrines from the vulgar, and would not have omitted the doctrine of the immortality of the soul. We were surprized to find him asserting, in a note, (vol. i. p. 226.) 'that the knowledge of a resurrection and future state was familiar to the patriarchs; which is proved by the sacrifice of Abel, the translation of Enoch, the faith of Abraham, the vision of Jacob, &c. beyond fair controversy.' For the proof of this position, he refers to the discourses of Sir H. Moncreiff Wellwood, which we have not now the means of consulting: but a much better evidence is easily accessible — the Bible itself, in which we are at a loss to perceive how the most perverted ingenuity of a commentator could discover the doctrine of a resurrection and a future state in the sacrifice of Abel. Is it not singular that, after having maintained the book of Genesis to be an inspired record of the knowlege communicated by God to his creatures, Mr. S. should suppose the momentous doctrine of a future life to have been revealed, and yet the revelation to have been passed over in silence by the historian who so solemnly records the sentence of mortality passed on the descendants of Adam?

An appendix is subjoined to this volume, which treats of the consistency of the Mosaic history with the discoveries of geology; of the descent of mankind from a single pair; and of the authenticity and antiquity of the Pentateuch. This part of his work, by the author's own confession, contains little originality; and we therefore pass on to the second volume: only observing, with respect to the subject of his third appendix, that, while Dr. Marsh regards the Hebrew of the Pentateuch as so unlike that of the age of David that it cannot have been written then, Eichhorn deems them so similar that he conceives the books of Moses to have formed a sort of canon of style to subsequent writers, and thus accounts for the absence of that diversity of which the existence is so evident to Dr. Marsh. Whatever opinion may be maintained on this and some minor points, on which men equally learned and equally zealous for the honour of Revelation have differed, the arguments which Mr. S. and others have adduced for the divine origin of the Mosaic dispensation form a basis on which we rejoice to think that it rests immovably, secured not only by the strength of its own foundation but also by the incumbent weight of Christianity; which, arising from Judaism and involving the truth of it, lends to the parent-religion the credibility derived from the prophecies, miracles, and internal evidences, by which its own divine origin is established.

Mr. Sumner treats in Vol. II. of the moral attributes of the Creator, and considers the objections which have been made to them. Chapter II. contains some excellent observations on the design of the Creator with regard to the existence of man on the earth; and a decisive refutation of those who have been led by the classifications of natural history to confound the distinction between man and the lower animals, and to extend a fanciful chain of being from the most imperfect organization to the highest intelligence. The author puts forth his chief strength, however, in the third and following chapters, in which he treats of the inequality of conditions and the principle of population with reference to the wisdom and goodness of God. In bestowing so much time on the examination of the paradoxes of Rousseau, Raynal, and Godwin, some persons may be disposed to think that he has paid more than necessary attention to extravagances which common sense has discarded with contempt, and time has consigned to oblivion: but the fact is that the disposition to adopt the doctrines of equality is an intermittent disorder in the frame of society; and that, as we must expect its periodical return, we cannot safely neglect those precautions which shall make its access as little dangerous as we can render it. The evils which arise from the accumulation of property are obvious to the most careless eye; and the passions, which prompt those who think that they suffer from it to aim at its abolition, are such as the coarsest oratory or the flimsiest argument may rouse: — its benefits are less palpable, and are produced through many intermediate circumstances which conceal their operation. In seasons, consequently, in which national distress brings the extremes of society into contrast more than usually painful, equalization of property will always seem to hold out a ready method for attaining the more general diffusion of the blessings of life; and even benevolence itself will find it difficult to repress the wish that the abused superfluities of the wealthy class should be appropriated to relieve the pressing wants of the indigent. It is not useless, therefore, to shew, as Mr. S. has done, that barbarism is the necessary attendant on equality of property; and that its unequal distribution,

tribution is favourable not only to the improvement of the political and intellectual condition of man, but to the growth of those virtues which it is the design of Providence to form within him, by the moral discipline to which this life subjects him.

'That the civilized man is to be classed as the most perfect, and not as a depraved part of the species, it can scarcely be necessary to prove. The union of various characters, whose bent of disposition has inclined them to the different pursuits which have been just enumerated as composing civilized life, produces the quick apprehension, the versatile talent, the accurate discernment, the steady conduct, which entitle man to be called the chief of created beings. What comparison is there between that perfection of the corporeal powers, which a constant dependence upon the senses has produced in the savage, and that habitual power of reason with which a cultivated mind is accustomed to trace events to their source, and pursue them to their consequences? If experience assures us, that, wherever equality is established, savageness will continue, let us see to what state equality would reduce the world. Observe the savage in his retirement; his eyes bent on vacancy, his stagnant mind making no compensation for the inactivity of his body; or follow him to his feast, which has no object but intemperate excess, and is succeeded by a deathlike torpor; or watch him when roused by hostility from his indolence, cherishing, even by artificial means, hatred and revenge, and vigorous only to supplant his enemy by stratagem and treachery. Compare this representation, which it is mortifying to hold up as the description of a human being, not with the philosopher, whose active mind could find even in the bath a solution of his problem; not with another of the wonders of antiquity, who refused even to sleep a complete dominion over his faculties; but merely with the ordinary exertion and habitual activity of civilized existence: with the vigilant observation that unfolds the mysteries of nature, or the patient abstraction that facilitates the works of art; with the energy of animated conversation that dignifies the rational entertainment; and then let the moralist or historian misuse as he will the powers he owes to civilization in extolling an uncivilized state, yet he can never disprove the acknowledged fact, that inequality sharpens and exercises the natural powers of man, and that this exercise of the natural powers brings the human species to that degree of excellence which He who made him capable of it, intended him to attain.'

The fifth and sixth chapters of this volume are devoted to the inquiry how far the principle of population, as developed in Mr. Malthus's celebrated work, is reconcileable with the wisdom and benevolence of God. We believe that the prejudice, which many persons feel against the principle of Mr. Malthus, has arisen from the manner in which he brought it forwards in the first and anonymous edition of his essay.

Its aspect, indeed, was sufficiently revolting. At that time, it was fashionable to consider the evils of society as arising from the perversion of social institutions, and the overthrow or regeneration of them as the only means of enabling man to attain to that state of collective and individual perfection for which nature had intended him. In opposition to these theories, the "Essay on Population" undertook to prove that, the increase of the species exceeding in a large proportion the possible increase of the means of subsistence, a great body in every community must be destitute of sustenance, and live in misery from the want of it, or in vice from the practice of unlawful means for its acquisition. Having established the existence of this tendency, and ostentatiously displayed the effect which it must have in perpetuating the evils which the authors whom he was combating supposed to admit of so easy a remedy, he left his readers to extricate themselves as they could from the difficulties into which he had plunged them. Perhaps, he had not himself perceived, or perhaps in the triumph of a victorious argument he disdained to notice, that his weapon had penetrated much deeper than was necessary for cleaving in twain the phantom of perfectibility, and had inflicted a dangerous wound on the hope of the philanthropist and the faith of the believer in the providence of God. The evil of the illicit indulgence of the sexual passion had been seen both by moralists and legislators, and they had enforced the duty of marriage as not only the payment of a debt to society but the security and source of individual virtue and happiness: yet that *medio de fonte leporum* should spring the venom which embitters and corrupts human life; — that the conjugal and parental relations, hitherto supposed to be as beneficial in their influence as they are delightful in the emotions which attend them, should become the causes of misery and vice; — and that, in the means of perpetuating the human species, was contrived also a provision for the perpetuity of wretchedness and degradation among the beings thus brought into existence; — these were doctrines which startled the benevolent and pious mind, and which the author himself could not view with complacency when the ardour of controversy had subsided. Accordingly, in his second edition, he qualified some of his most sweeping conclusions, softened the harsher features of his system, and introduced the important principle of moral restraint, in addition to the vice and misery which had before been employed to repress the exuberance of population. It is curious to observe that he has thus come at last to occupy ground not very remote from that of which he began by dispossessing Mr. Godwin; and that he attributes much of those evils to defective and absurd political institutions, which in his first work he had charged wholly on the constitution of nature. Still, something is wanting to enable us to contemplate the effects of the principle of population with satisfaction. We are aware that there must be a tendency to redundance, in order to prevent or speedily repair the mischief of a deficiency; — that the spring, if it possesses its proper elasticity, must be ready to fly beyond its place when the pressure which confines it is removed. We can readily acquiesce in this reasoning when it is applied to justify the apparent waste of productive power in some of the inferior tribes of the creation, in the spawn of salmon or the seeds of fennel: but it has a different effect on us when the means, by which supply and demand are proportioned to each other, are the miseries of sentient and the vices of responsible and immortal beings. When the political economist speaks of population subsiding to the level of subsistence, what an accumulation of evils physical and moral are involved in that destruction of the species which is veiled in this metaphorical phrase, though it passes backwards and forwards in argument without exciting any suspicion of what it really implies! We are glad, therefore, to reconcile our minds to the existence of such a law in the works of a wise and benevolent Creator, by considering every possible advantage which its operation may procure for us; and such are the arguments that Mr. Sumner undertakes to exhibit in the chapters of which we are speaking. Having already evinced that the unequal division of property is the best arrangement for promoting the developement of man's intellectual and moral powers, he proceeds to argue that the law of his increase, as demonstrated by Mr. Malthus, (for he admits the statements and reasonings of that author in their fullest extent,) is necessary to produce the right of property, the gradation of ranks, and the inequality of possessions.

'Here then, from the time when the claimants for food pressed against the supply, not of the whole world, but of the district they had first peopled, we have the date of the *recognition of property*, resulting from the necessities imposed upon man by the constitution of things: and in the recognition of property we have the point, as was before observed, from which industry, arts, and civilization set out. Human nature, if we judge from experience, requires that the individual should be satisfied that the effects of his personal exertion should contribute to his personal comfort. According as he is more or less assured of this, he is more or less active and laborious. Look at the degrees of industry in different countries: the variation is uniformly true to this principle. Where property is recognized, but insecure, as in countries where the police is deficient, though the effect of labour is more evident than when its produce is carried to a common store, still, as its advantage is uncertain, the individual is less disposed to exertion than the inhabitant of a well-regulated community. Again, where the government is regular, but the despotism severe, there will be much humble industry, but little accumulation of property; it is worth while to enjoy, but not to lay up what will soon become an object of rapacity. In every case, the exertion bears a close proportion to the visible and certain advantage it produces. This advantage is never less visible than when labour contributes to a common store.

'The step, therefore, immediately following the first distress for food, is the determination that each family should support itself, and each individual enjoy the fruits of his own labour. And since it is an acknowledged truth, that, according to the nature of things, the supply of food can only be increased at a much slower rate than an unchecked population will multiply, there is every reason to suppose that in all ages and countries a very short period has been suffered to elapse, before the expediency had been seen of dividing the occupied lands among the existing families.'

He then endeavours to shew that the principle of population has uniformly defeated all legislative attempts to equalize landed possessions, and draws his general conclusion:

'It has thus appeared, from a brief statement of the laws which regulate population, that the instinctive principle which attaches the sexes to one another, and rears a family, keeps the inhabited districts of the world so continually full, as to call into action all their resources, and oblige them to economize the means of subsistence, by making them the reward of individual exertion. I have also traced the progress by which this principle necessarily leads to an inequality of ranks and fortunes, which effect, indeed, it has constantly and universally produced in a greater or less degree, from the earliest date of history. For the primary agent is all along to be found in that original law, which multiplies the consumers of the fruits of the earth faster than the fruits themselves. The difference of men's habits and powers would signify nothing, if food were so plentiful that it could be procured without a return of labour. Were it the law of the universe, no matter how brought into execution, that every man born into the world should find himself heir to indolence and plenty, then there need be no division of property, since no one could possibly, according to the supposition, possess what his neighbour wanted, or require what his neighbour had. Or if it had been appointed that all mankind should possess the same genius, the same powers of mind and body, and be exempt from physical evils, the division of property would not necessarily have been accompanied by inequality. But since the fact is ordained otherwise, and, for reasons already shown, wisely ordained; since men are born with various capacities of mind, and degrees of bodily strength; since the necessaries of life can only be produced by labour; and since there are, in all countries, more claimants for the necessaries of life than can be easily or plentifully supplied with them; it must inevitably follow that possessions shall be *appropriated and unequally divided*; and that the conveniencies of life shall belong, in the greatest abundance, to the head which is most fertile in resources, or the hand which is the most industrious in exertion.'

From the chapter on the collateral effects of the principle of population, we cannot refuse ourselves the pleasure of quoting the passage in which the author is illustrating the operation of moral restraint.

'Where a space appears, in which the principle of population may act unlimitedly, the natural desire is also the law of reason. But under the different appearance which most European countries present, rational prudence interferes as a check to the natural desire, and, by setting before every individual his own best interests, actually, though perhaps unconsciously, determines the rate in which population shall proceed.

'In all this there is no violence, no cruelty, nothing contrary to the nature of man, as a reasonable and accountable being. If his lot is cast in a country where no opening appears, by filling which he may gratify the natural wish of planting a family around him; this wish, however natural, yields at once, and almost without a struggle, to the circumstances which impede its gratification. The mind, diverted from one object, turns without pain or convulsion to another: it seeks for amusement in the endless varieties of pursuit which civilized life affords, and devotes the attention which, in another case, would have been paid to a family, to the interests of dignified ambition or literature. In those ages of refinement which oppose obstacles in the way of marriage, many, like Epaminondas, have left a posterity behind them in the victories they have achieved, not, indeed, over their fellow-men, but over the difficulties of natural and moral science; victories which might never have been gained, but for the circumstances which diverted their attention from the common concerns of ordinary life. This applies to educated minds. In the inferior ranks, a man sees his prospect fairly placed before him. If he chooses, as it is usually better he should, in preference to ease and freedom from care, the comforts of domestic enjoyment and affectionate intercourse, he knows that he must pay for those comforts in his labour. And thus his labour has a perpetual stimulus, and a daily reward. Without labour, nature gives nothing any where. A man born into a country already fully occupied is possessed of many advantages; but those advantages certainly demand from him in return severe and constant exertion, if he claims to himself the peculiar privilege of a young society, that of having a family in early life, together with the comforts attending a state of advanced civilization.'

We are compelled to omit a notice of the remainder of the volume, in which Mr. Sumner treats of the goodness of God, the existence of natural and civil evils, the capabilities of improvement in advanced civilization, and the evils of an uncivilized state. In this as in other parts of the work, we perceive a want of distinct separation between the subjects of different chapters, and of a definite bearing on the general object of the whole: but the reader will find in it many valuable remarks, expressed in vigorous and perspicuous language. The book is more properly a collection of supplementary fragments on the evidences of natural and revealed religion, than a systematic treatise on that topic: but if, by choosing this plan, the author has deprived himself of the first honours of the contest, he has rendered a more important service to the cause of truth than he could have effected by conforming himself more strictly to the terms of the competition.

ART. IX. *Armata; a* Fragment. 8vo. pp. 209. 8s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1817.

WE are scarcely able to give any simple description or definition of this peculiar work, which would convey an adequate idea of its character and contents: but it is, at bottom, a political treatise disguised under something resembling an allegory, and combined with a narration that was intended, no doubt, to create for it an interest with general readers. The author himself has characterized it as a fragment, and we consider it as resembling the "*disjecti membra poetæ,*" the Torso of the Belvidere, or the celebrated remains which have been lately transported to us from the Acropolis of Athens. It is evidently the produce of a mind highly gifted and cultivated, but it is hastily put together, and consequently imperfect. In a political light only we are desirous of regarding it; and in any other point of view we could afford it little commendation, the narration being incomplete and inconsistent, and the allegory both ill contrived and badly executed. Beneath this veil, however, it offers much wholesome truth, conveyed with great temper and judgment, and graced with an eloquence that is equally interesting and impressive.

The purport of the narrative is to describe a person carried away at sea by a violent current, out of the attraction of the earth into that of a neighbouring body connected with our globe as in a chain-shot one ball is united to another, on which imaginary world he meets with an island called Armata. On this island he is shipwrecked; and, having been cast ashore by the waves, he encounters a man called Morven, born of English parents, who had many years before suffered shipwreck in a similar manner, and who, by living among the natives of this fancied island, had become completely familiarized with their customs and enabled to judge of their institutions. The reader will at once guess that Armata is England; more especially when told that the island is situated near to a great continent, of which the most neighbouring country is Capetia; a disguised name under which there can be no difficulty in recognizing France, the land of the Capets; while, far to the westward, is another great continent named Hesperia, under which it is equally easy to discover America. Political topics are introduced in conversations between the author and Morven; in which the latter takes a view of the history, constitution, and present situation of Armata, and the former gives his advice as to the line of politics which it will be prudent for the government of the country to adopt.

We shall pass over the first two chapters, as they merely contain an account of the author's fictitious adventure, which has little that is interesting to recommend it. Indeed, so many stumbling-blocks are placed in the way of a narrator of a tale such as this, that few imaginary travels in the marvellous style can now be calculated to excite much interest in the minds of readers who are acquainted with the accounts of those adventures which are so well known. Let us, therefore, commence our account of the work with the first conversation between the author and his Armatan* friend. When asked to give some account of the history of his nation, Morven launches out at once into its praise:

> ' "Though placed," says he, "as it were a kind of exile, in a remote *margin* of this world, — small in its compass, — in its climate disappointing from its vicissitudes, — surrounded by seas not often favourable to navigation, and only emerging from the darkness of barbarism in a late period of nations, it soon towered above them all, and has for a long season been the day-star of our planet. — It seems, indeed, as if the Divine Providence had chosen it as the instrument of its benevolent purpose, to enlighten by an almost insensible progression the distant and divided families of mankind, to hold up to them the sacred lamp of religious and moral truth, to harmonize them by the example of mild and liberal institutions, and to controul the disturbers of the social world with an unparalleled arm of strength; — may she always remember that this mighty dominion is a trust — that her work is not yet finished — and that if she deserts or slumbers upon her post, she will be relieved and punished!" '

After some farther preliminary conversation, he begins his account of the island in the fourth chapter. Taking a rapid view of the feudal-system, he observes:

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* The author calls the people Armatians, but why should Armata form Armatian, any more than America forms American?

'" It must be admitted that the governments I have been describing had a strong tendency towards arbitrary monarchies, an opinion confirmed by their histories; because, when one or more superior dominions had been established by conquest, the lesser ones surrounding them having no common interest to unite them, nor any support from the great bodies of their people, were often overpowered and extinguished: the most popular captains of fierce adventurers becoming in another age the sovereigns of nations.

'" One of those invaders once swayed by force and terror the sceptre of Armata; but conquest and the tyrannical abuse of it may lay the foundation of a system of liberty which no courage could have conquered nor human wisdom have contrived. — Perhaps in this short sentence you have a faithful though as yet an obscure account of the origin of that singular constitution which has raised Armata to the highest pinnacle of fame and glory. Great and invulnerable as she now is, she was once subdued, and all the monuments of her ancient wisdom overthrown; but the dominion of one man, however gifted or fortunate, is sure to pass away when it tramples upon the principles that gave it birth.—The successful invader, confounding his free and fierce companions with the nation they had conquered, the oppressors soon became numbered with the oppressed, and, after the reigns of but a few of his descendants, the successor to his arbitrary dominion was forced to submit to the establishment of freedom demanded in arms by the conquerors and the conquered now forming an unanimous and indignant people.

'" The extraordinary feature of this singular revolution was, that a nation in arms against its sovereign, and reducing him to terms of submission, had the discretion to know exactly what to demand, and, by demanding nothing more, to secure the privileges it had obtained. — The ordinary insurrections of mankind against oppression have generally been only convulsive paroxysms of tumult and disorder more destructive than the tyranny overthrown, and often ending in worse; because civil societies cannot be suddenly new-modelled with safety. — Their improvements, to be permanent, must be almost insensible, and growing out of the original systems, however imperfect they may have been."'

The revolution here mentioned will at once be recognized as that which took place in the reign of King John:

'" From this period, the principles of civil freedom struck deep root in Armata, deeper perhaps from the weight by which they continued to be pressed, the prerogatives of their princes being still formidable and frequently abused. — Perhaps the law which governs the system of the universe may be the grand type and example of human governments — the immense power of the sun, though the fountain of light and life, would in its excess be fatal; the planets, therefore, though they yield to its fostering attraction in their unceasing and impetuous revolutions, are repelled from it by a kind of instinctive terror; since, if the sun could by its influence detach them from their force centrifugal, they would be absorbed with the swiftness of lightning into the centre, and, like the fly allured by the light of the taper, be instantly consumed.

' "The powers given to executive governments for great national purposes, like those given to the sun, ought to be extensive, nor can they be dangerous if they are *sufficiently balanced*, and that balance preserved upon the very principle of *centrifugal* force; because the existence of a strong government, and the possibility of its misconduct, are the strongest securities of freedom. Every page of the history of Armata illustrates this important truth; since, in the same proportion that executive power has at different periods become the objects of salutary jealousy, popular privileges have been uniformly strengthened from the abuses, and when at last a grand and glorious struggle to put an end to them for ever was crowned with the justest and most triumphant success, constitutional fear, which had for ages watched over and subdued them, unhappily fell asleep—*the centrifugal force was lost;*—and power stripped of its terrors, but invested with the means of *dazzling and corrupting*, soon began to undermine a system of government which the most formidable prerogatives had for ages been unable to destroy." '

The progressive advancement of commerce and science is then described as having gradually overcome the domineering pretensions of the nobles, and the firmest prerogatives of the King; and, passing very hastily over intermediate occurrences which brought the antient monarchy and aristocracy to the ground together, the great Revolution of 1688 is thus strikingly pourtrayed:

'But as a river swoln and impetuous amidst the tempest, bursting beyond its banks and leaving no trace of its ancient channel, often returns to it, having only fructified the country it overflowed, so the Armatians soon came back again to the venerable but improved constitution of their fathers; they did spontaneous homage to their exiled monarch, and afterwards to his infatuated successor, till, seeing no security in the mild and generous experiment of Restoration, they were driven at last to seek their safety through a Revolution, but such a one as perhaps will to the end of time continue to be unexampled—accomplished without blood—cutting off only the cankered branches, but preserving all the others to hold their places in the ancient tree of their liberties: and as the broad leaf and consummate flower still preserve the distinct characters of the roots that nourish them, so the Armatians, even when principalities and powers were at their feet, never sought to depart from their original cast.'

In the period which immediately succeeded this great epoch in our history, the author thinks the nation touched her meridian height.—The next æra to which he alludes is that of the American war:

' "I pointed

‘“ I pointed out metaphorically to your view two vast continents under her imperial wings: one of them, to which, looking southward, her right extended, she had planted and peopled. The inhabitants of Hesperia were her own children, worshipping with the same rites the God of their common fathers, speaking the same language, following in the track of the same laws and customs which fashion and characterize a people. — Armata, in short, ruled by the freest consent the whole of this vast country, appointed without question all her magistrates, and enjoyed a monopoly of her commerce, not only in the exclusive import of her various productions into her own bosom, but in the monopolous return of all her own manufactures: which, from the rapid progress of population throughout that immense region, was in itself an inexhaustible source of wealth, setting perfectly at nought the entire intercourse of our whole world besides.

‘“ Shall I be then believed when I tell you that with *all this* Armata was not satisfied, but insisted that an useful, affectionate, and distant people should pay for the support of wars she had been foolishly involved in at the other extremity of our planet? — Can the human imagination extend farther to the belief, that even *this monstrous claim* was acceded to? — the children of a misguided parent desired only to know what she demanded, that they might have the grace of rendering it as a spontaneous grant, to be bestowed under the same forms of government and under the sanction of the very magistrates which she herself had created for the purpose. — Must I lastly trespass upon, or rather insult, your credulity, by telling you that even *this* offer was refused? Though revenue was the object, the unlimited grant was rejected, and the revenue after all given up to enforce a nominal demand. — Many eloquent and solemn protests of our most illustrious men of that time were opposed in vain to this insane project. The whole strength of Armata was put forth, and her armies invaded a country so much more extensive than her own, that when collected upon its adverse surface, they could scarcely hear the sound of one another's cannon. — Need I conclude by adding that they were all taken like so many birds in the net of the fowler, and the dominion of Armata, which before had stood upon a rock, was renounced by Hesperia for ever — at first in defiance — but at last, when the combat became manifestly hopeless, dissolved by mutual consent.” ’

On the author asking how it happened that the people, who had obtained so complete a controul over the public counsels, suffered the war to be continued, Morven thus replies:

‘“ The answer to your question involves one of the most curious and extraordinary changes that has ever taken place in the political history of any nation. In the earlier periods of that of Armata, though the sovereigns had more power, and the people's representatives were comparatively nothing in the balance, the Hesperian war could not have been carried on. The delegates of the people would have strenuously opposed it in every stage of its disastrous progress — the whole nation would have upheld them, and the government even, if not subdued, would have been overawed and checked in its impolitic course; but, before this period, the ancient system of the government had been completely inverted; the popular council, though in theory scarcely entitled to that name or character, had for ages fulfilled all the practical purposes of the most perfect representation; because, having the same interests with the universal mass of population, and nothing then existing to seduce them from the discharge of their duties, it mattered not by whom they were elected; but the time was arrived when the right of election became a vital principle. — The crown was now possessed of a great revenue, which was rapidly increasing, and as the Commons had advanced in power and importance, it was thought convenient by its ministers to act no longer upon their own responsibility, even in the most ordinary details of business, but to take their constitutional opponents into pay and make them ministers in their stead; well knowing that they could not possibly oppose, nor even censure the measures which were their own. — Neither can it be matter of wonder that the people at large, though wise to a proverb, should be the dupes of so artful a contrivance. — They had been long accustomed to regard every act of the executive power with the most jealous apprehension, and to consider the voice of their representatives who had never betrayed them as the Law and the Gospel. — When they saw, therefore, the crown upon this momentous occasion so humbly deferring to the wisdom, as it was called, of the national council; when its ministers were entirely behind the curtain, and every step that was taken was by the authority of their own servants, they threw up their caps into the air, and poured in addresses from every part of the island, offering their lives and fortunes in support of the glorious contest; gifts which unhappily no opportunity was left them to recal, the personal supporters of the war being knocked on the head, and the pockets of the rest completely emptied. — When the illusion was at length dissolved by disappointment and defeat, an universal hue and cry was raised against the whole system, set on foot by its loudest supporters; and the minister of that day, a most able statesman, though in that matter undoubtedly mistaken, and in private life one of the most agreeable and amiable of mankind, was attacked without measure or mercy. — He manfully stood his ground; and, I am persuaded, with a clear conscience maintained the policy and justice of his administration; but the most zealous of his adherents now seeing the clearest reasons for condemning him, though none whatever existed which had not been as manifest from the outset, and many more finding it impossible from business to be in their places to defend him, though they had nothing at all to do, he was compelled to retire; and in a few weeks afterwards a man would have been probably mobbed in the streets, or perhaps imprisoned as a lunatic, if he had been rash enough to assert that the whole nation had been otherwise than mad, and without a lucid interval for fourteen years together."

In the sixth chapter, the delicate and difficult question of *Reform* is treated. It is observed that the æra of the war previously described was 'almost the first in which the representative part of the constitution exhibited any proofs of dangerous imperfection.' Acknowleging all the difficulty of the subject, the author still thinks that some reform is highly necessary; even if it were only to induce, in the minds of the people at large, a greater degree of respect and affection for the legislature, and to remove from the power of factious and designing men those weapons of offence which they never fail to direct against any vulnerable parts of the public economy. The most moderate view, however, is taken of this interesting topic:

'The first step towards public reformation,' it is observed, 'is a firm combination against rash and violent men.—Very many of them (perhaps the bulk) are perfectly well intentioned, but not, for all that, the less dangerous to the cause they would support.—Some of them, indeed, one would think were in our world set on to take the lead by those who opposed any changes, that wise men might retire altogether from the pursuit. For my own part, I would not only submit to the imperfections of such an admirable constitution as you have described in Armata, but would consent to the continuance of the worst that can be imagined, rather than mix myself with ignorance thrusting itself before the wisdom which should direct it, or with persons of desperate fortunes, whom no sound state of society could relieve; but such men, I think, could work no mischief, if rank and property stood honestly and manfully in their places.'

The next chapter is allotted to an account of the Revolution in France. A statement is shortly but eloquently given of the political situation of the country before that event; and a comparison is drawn between its want of a commercial spirit, as well as of religious and political freedom, and the advantages possessed by England in those points; in which the policy of England, in refusing to mediate between France and the other continental powers, at the period of Lord Grenville's celebrated letter, is warmly condemned. The Armatan then proceeds:

'"My confidence in this opinion is the more unshaken from the recollection that I held it at the very time, in common with a man whom to have known as I did would have repaid all the toils and perils you have undergone.—I look upon you, indeed, as a benighted traveller, to have been cast upon our shores after this great light was set.—Never was a being gifted with an understanding so perfect, nor aided by a perception which suffered nothing to escape from its dominion.—He was never known to omit any thing which in the slightest degree could affect the matter to be considered, nor to

confound

confound things at all distinguishable, however apparently the same; and his conclusions were always so luminous and convincing, that you might as firmly depend upon them as when substances in nature lie before you in the palpable forms assigned to them from the foundation of the world. — Such were his qualifications for the office of a statesman: and his profound knowledge, always under the guidance of the sublime simplicity of his heart, softening without unnerving the giant strength of his intellect, gave a character to his eloquence which I shall not attempt to describe, knowing nothing by which it may be compared.

'" Had the counsels of this great man been accepted, much more if he himself had been to carry them into execution with his eminent companions, I must ever think that the peace of our world might have been preserved. — I have not forgotten that great numbers of wise and independent men *then* held and with equal firmness persevere in the contrary opinion; but their grand reason in support of it was never supported by the fact: — their whole argument resting upon the danger to our monarchical constitution from *republican infection;* but if the course I have insisted on had been adopted, the Capetian monarchy might most probably have been preserved, and there would have been *then no republic to infect us!*"'

This animated eulogy on the memory of Mr. Fox is succeeded, in the following chapter, by a not less just tribute to his great political rival.

'" The astonishing events which are soon to close my narrative could not, upon any human calculation, (*at least in my opinion,*) have happened as they did, without the commanding talents of an extraordinary young man, who yet might not have flourished at so early an age, but from being the son of *another* man who had justly acquired a great reputation in our country by superior eloquence, always exerted in the cause of freedom; nor could his descendant, eloquent as he was, have risen to so premature an eminence but by treading in his father's steps, pleading the cause of public reformation, which *at that time* was highly popular, and of which he too took the lead in his very earliest youth: neither could even this illustrious course have produced the events which followed, but on the contrary might have averted them, if he had not turned short round on a sudden and not only renounced his former opinions, but sounded the alarm when others persevered in the sentiments they had imbibed from his own lips. — But history is a libel when it departs in any thing from the truth. — It must be admitted that the influence of the Capetian revolution had given an inflamed and dangerous character to the proceedings of many who had mixed themselves with this cause, demanding the most prompt vigilance of our government, and the firmest execution of the laws; but perhaps no man existing was therefore so well qualified as himself to have changed those turbulent excesses, and turned them, upon his own principles, into a safer course; a duty which, without assorting himself *unfitly,* he had the happiest opportunity of fulfilling, through an association of his own equals in rank and eminence, who were then discountenancing by their influence and example every departure from the sound opinions and declarations recently published by himself in his own name, and widely circulated amongst the people: yet the birth of this very association, (as far at least as times coincide,) was made the signal of universal alarm, and a proclamation by his authority almost instantly followed, which being the obvious forerunner of war, put wholly out of the question that politic and humane consideration for the suffering people of Capetia, which I shall die in the opinion of having been at the period before related the interest and the duty of the whole civilized world.

'" I take no delight in these observations. — Posthumous reputation is often held too lightly.—We consider that the dead can gain nothing by our applauses, nor suffer from our censures: but supposing a man whilst living to have stood alone like a rock in the ocean, without children or kindred to represent him, I should still remember that this life was but a portion of an immortal existence, and fame being the highest inheritance, I should feel like a felon if I robbed him of what I believed to be his own. — I knew, then, this great minister in his youth, and foresaw his future destination. — His understanding was vigorous and comprehensive — his reasoning clear and energetic — his eloquence powerful and commanding — and as he was supported throughout his eventful career by immense numbers of disinterested and independent men, it would be unjust not to believe that he was himself disinterested and independent. — His memory after death received this tribute from many illustrious persons who had differed from him in opinion, and it is not only held by his friends and adherents in affectionate remembrance, but in reverence as the saviour of his country. — Having from a sense of justice recorded this *last* testimony of an exalted reputation, I hold it to be a solemn duty to question and deny it, being convinced that if we *revere,* or even *abide* by the system which characterized his administration as having *formerly* saved his country, we shall not save it NOW.'

In adverting to the accusations and public trials which then agitated the nation, the power of the courts of justice is pointed out as a talisman alike controuling the legislative and the executive powers. This part is succeeded by an account of Mr. Burke's celebrated work on the French Revolution; in which the conduct of that writer during the American war and the period in question is contrasted, as a warning voice happily breathing the gentle accents of peace at the former epoch, but now heard louder than the trumpet of battle to collect the world to arms, and spreading panic and complaints of sedition throughout the land. A rapid view is taken of the war, or rather successive wars, with France, from the year 1794 to the battle of Waterloo; in which picture Bonaparte forms, of course, a prominent object. The error of his government is ascribed to his dread of free constitutions, and to his support of the unlimited powers of the rulers in the countries which he had subdued or controuled.

'" If," says the Armatan, " by politic and moral conventions when the sword was in his hand to enforce them, instead of by a system of oppression and subversion, he had balanced in their own states the princes who opposed him, giving an interest to their people to support him, he might have surrounded himself with grateful and independent nations, to have guarded and almost to have adored him; but he left them insulted, pillaged, degraded, and in the hands of their uncontrouled and justly incensed kings, who of course made use of them to destroy him.—They were *no longer* mercenary, reluctant armies, but nations embodied against their oppressors." '

Morven then goes on to describe the situation of his country, at the close of the war, as embarrassed with many difficulties; and he requests the opinion of his English friend, the author, respecting the proper course to be pursued for the removal of the existing embarrassments. To this inquiry the latter replies by demanding information on several points on which it is necessary for him to be accurately informed, before he can give the opinion required. First, he asks how much has been added to the debt of the nation in the prosecution of the late glorious war, and what proportion the whole national debt bears to the quantity of the precious metals, the universal representative of wealth. He is answered that the debt has been increased *tenfold*; and that all the precious metals in Armata, or in the whole planet, or that were ever dug from the mines since their discovery, would not be sufficient now to extinguish it. We have then some observations on some of the most oppressive of the public imposts, among which the duty on legacies and wills is particularly distinguished. — The second inquiry demands how much of the substance of the people is taken away by taxes direct and indirect; which is answered (conjecturally, in course, for it cannot be otherwise,) by a statement that, if resort could be had to an equal rate comprehending the aggregate of the various sources, it would amount to one half. — The next inquiry respects the collateral burdens of the people for the support of the clergy and the poor; and on the subject of the latter the Armatan remarks:

'" As to the support of *what is called* the poor, the amount of which I have already related, it has spread pauperism through all the middle classes of the community. — In the earlier periods of our history the burthen of maintaining them was scarcely felt, our ancient law confining it to the relief of 'the lame, the blind, and the impotent, and such others *amongst them* as were unable to work.' — Every principle of humanity demanded that support from those whom Providence had exempted from such severe infirmities; but every principle of sound policy opposed its further extension, and it was limited at first, in every district, to one-fortieth, which, speaking in your coin, would be only *sixpence in the pound;* but, by a strange departure from the principle of the original law, it now often exceeds forty times that amount, and in some places even the annual value of the property on which it professes to be a tax. — To be entitled to relief, it is no longer necessary that the applicant should bring himself within any of the descriptions of the ancient law; neither blindness, nor lameness, nor impotence, nor even inability to work, are necessary qualifications for support; large houses in every district being *now* built for the reception of almost *any body who chooses to go into them*, and from a prostration of morals it is no longer felt as a humiliation or a reproach; even they who, from their own improvidence, have contracted marriage though they knew themselves to be utterly incapable of maintaining their children, have a claim to cast them upon the public as soon as they are born, and to live with them as inmates in those receptacles intended for the promotion of industry and the relief of want, but which, from the very nature of things, under the best management, become the abodes of vice and misery; where the aged, the diseased, the idle, and the profligate, the two first classes being everywhere out-numbered, are heaped upon one another, giving birth by their debaucheries to a new race of paupers, till they become "a kind of putrid mass above ground, corrupted themselves and corrupting all about them."— To finish the picture of abuse: this enormous and still growing burthen is almost exclusively cast upon the proprietors and occupiers of land, who ought least to be called upon to bear it, as neither their diseases nor their vices contribute in any kind of proportion to the aggregate of the poor. — The simplicity of a country-life furnishes but a small contingent of either. —The vicious and the distempered are hourly vomited forth from the mines and manufactories, where contaminating multitudes and unwholesome labour produce every disgusting variety of decrepitude and crime, yet neither the proprietors of those establishments, nor the capitalists who roll along the streets of our cities in splendid carriages, pay any thing like their proportions to the support of the idle and the unhealthy they have produced. — Almost the whole is cast upon the cultivators of the soil, who, except in the very houses I have described, supported by their property and labour, see nothing around them but innocence and health."'

Another question leads to a discussion why, after the return of peace, there should be no market for the farmer's produce? which is explained by the cessation of those *enormous* demands of the government that existed only during the war. The law restrictive of the importation of corn is then mentioned with commendation, and the erroneous feelings of the people on that subject are very justly condemned. It is perfectly true, as the Armatan observes, that bread may be very cheap,

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and yet the people, having no money to buy it, from the want of encouragement to labour, may be in a worse condition than when it was comparatively dear. The want of a similar restrictive law on the subject of wool is next discussed; and this is followed by the questions of the fixed interest of money, the manufactures, and, lastly, the fisheries of the country. These inquiries being answered, the author proceeds to deliver his opinion on the measures to be pursued; which opinion consists principally in recommending retrenchment in all branches of public expenditure, and encouragement and extension of all the sources and means of national wealth and subsistence. The former expedient is considered by the author as bearing the same pre-eminence in this discussion which *action* (in the well-known opinion of Demosthenes) bore in the definition of eloquence. He begins with arraigning the expenditure in the late war:

'"Your government, according to your own admission, had long ago absorbed a much larger proportion of the public wealth than can possibly be consistent with the prosperity, I had almost said with the existence of any state. And no ordinary cause of war — nothing, indeed, short of self-protection from an invading force could have justified the launching out into such a wasteful system of expenditure, as to have increased ten-fold in less than thirty years the burthen of ten centuries." — "We had no choice," said Morven, interrupting me, "after the short opportunity I pointed out to you had passed; we sought to avoid war, but it was fastened upon us."

'"I am in no condition," I answered, "to dispute with you upon facts; but your adversaries were in the phrenzy of a sanguinary revolution, and were more likely to destroy themselves than to injure others. — You should therefore have exerted your influence with other governments to leave them unmolested; and if, by a firm and faithful combination, some safe direction could not be given to so inflamed and dangerous a people, all nations should have stood aloof from them as from the mouth of a volcano, attaching their own subjects by wise and indulgent councils, increasing *for the time* their military establishments, and keeping within their own territories in a state of impregnable defence."'

After some farther reasoning, the author hence concludes that 'the government collects in taxes so large a proportion of the property of the nation that the rest is not sufficient for the support of the people;' and therefore the restoration of a sound state to the public finances depends on a firm perseverance in the plan of improvement and reduction. The first source of reduction urged is in the naval and military establishments; after which, in course, must follow proportionable diminutions in every other branch of the public expenditure.

In the twelfth chapter, the writer turns to the subject of *improvement;* and here the first object which presents itself is the state of the poor-laws. It is a good observation that, 'in order to enable a state to collect a great and *direct* revenue from the property of the people, all *collateral* burthens ought to be made to press on them as lightly as possible.'

' "That this duty has been wholly lost sight of in a most vital part of your concerns, you have yourself admitted and lamented.— Nothing indeed can be so extravagantly absurd and preposterous as the management or rather THE CREATION of your poor, by which your government suffers to escape from it, (without any relief to its subjects, but on the contrary oppressing and corrupting them,) an annual revenue of nearly half your general taxes when your late war began, since you have stated that above seven millions are every year collected on that account.—To advise you, *in this case,* requires no local knowledge; an inhabitant of the moon, dropped down from it upon your surface, would, in the very next moment, be fully qualified to condemn the absurd and disgraceful system of your laws.—It was an insult, (though I am sure not intended,) to ask me what England would do in a condition to which she never can be reduced.—England would never have permitted her houses of charity, if a mistaken policy had erected them, to be converted into the haunts of vagabonds and prostitutes to knot and gender in, throwing the whole burthen of their debaucheries upon the industrious classes of her people.—England would laugh to scorn the laboured system of folly you have described, bringing no comfort to the necessitous, whilst it swallows up, in many instances, the entire property on which it professes to be a tax.—England, instead of setting up courts throughout the whole country to play at foot-ball with the unhappy, whom she meant to protect, driving them to and fro from one part of the kingdom to the other,—England would begin by confining public charity to those who were real objects of charitable support; and, wise in all her regulations, would then enact a system of equal and local contribution from all who, from *any source of property or industry,* could spare it; a contribution which the wealthy would not feel, and which would be felt even by the lowest orders not as a burthen, but as a protection from ever being themselves the objects of a degrading and corrupting relief.—Those mischievous receptacles of vice and misery, which you so justly and feelingly reprobated, would then be everywhere razed to the foundations; the poor would be restored to their domestic comforts, and contributing millions to an useless and devouring taxation, would be enabled to relieve the public as they became themselves relieved.—When by such a new system of laws, as wise and protective as the present is absurd and oppressive, the mites of almost the poorest came to be dropped into the boxes of so blessed an institution throughout every district in your country, pauperism would soon entirely disappear.—It often indeed exists in its most wretched and degraded forms, when what can be saved amongst

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the lower classes, instead of being deposited *weekly*, for their own benefit, is consumed *nightly*, in haunts where liquid fire is prepared for them, utterly destroying their constitutions, and disqualifying them from all the duties of good husbands, or fathers, or subjects, not one of which an habitual drunkard was ever yet qualified to fulfil."'

In pointing out the immediate and particular remedies to be adopted for the existing evils, the author, in the first place, insists on every thing being done to increase the produce of the soil. The great value of salt, as an article of consumption, and still more as an article of manure, is strongly maintained, and the policy of the high tax on it is warmly censured. On the importance of agriculture, the writer displays considerable eloquence:

'" Labour, indeed, is the salt of the earth, the preserver and nourisher of all things — the curse that man should eat his bread with the sweat of his brow, was mercifully repealed in the very moment it was pronounced, and was changed even into a blessing. —Labour gave him bread, and a comfort along with it, which nothing like labour can bestow. If the earth produced spontaneously, it might be a paradise for angels, but no habitation for beings formed like ourselves; without labour, what could support or adorn the whole fabric of society? — It would vanish like an enchantment.

'" The curse of death was also revoked, not only by the promise of immortal life hereafter, but to deliver man at the very moment from the barrenness of the earth that was cursed.—Without death, he might have toiled and sweated, but the ground would have yielded nothing; death therefore was ordained to revolve with life in a mysterious and fructifying circle. — The corruption of all created things returning into the bosom of nature, brings them back again to reward the industry of man. Every animal that dies; all vegetables, and they have lives also, every substance which dissolves and becomes offensive, every heterogeneous mixture, which upon the surface would stagnate and become malignant, brought back by human wisdom into their allotted stations, become the future parents of a renovated world."'

While urging measures of reform, retrenchment, and improvement, the author takes occasion to point out the advantages produced by every assistance supplied by machinery and other arts in the business of agriculture and manufactures, and to insist at the same time on the strict and vigorous execution of the laws against those who, in an ignorant jealousy of these means of improvement, are guilty of outrages which he justly denominates *insane*. — On the subject of the corn-laws, his opinion is unequivocally in favour of protecting duties; to be so regulated as to insure importation without enabling it to overpower the agriculture of the country. He then touches on the subject of manufactures, and again censures the duty on salt; concluding his opinion with the following passage:

'" Another momentous subject still more, if possible, demands your attention, and with that I shall conclude. — One of the first sentences you uttered to me, after snatching me from the grave, made an impression upon me which I shall carry there hereafter. You said that this highly-favoured island had been the chosen instrument of Divine dispensation, and that if she deserted or slumbered upon her post, she would be relieved and punished — Beware that this penal moment is not at hand. — Why do you now permit despotism and fanaticism to palsy the freedom of the rising world, when your duty and your interests are struggling for precedency to crush them at a blow? — If that vast continent were governed according to the humane maxims of civilized nations, you would have no right to wrest the sceptre out of hands however unworthy to wield it; but, since you have been placed for so many ages in the high post of honour for the advancement of human happiness, you ought to suffer no other nation to run on before you in the rescue of suffering millions from famine, dungeons, and the sword. — Recollect your eulogium upon the triumphs of chemistry and mechanics; — apply them to the mines and other productions of those vast regions; not as robbers or task-masters, but in the liberal spirit of commerce with their people, by which you might resuscitate your own country whilst you were breathing new life into theirs." '

Our extracts have been so very copious, that our readers will by this time be fully acquainted with this singular production. They will now expect from us some farther opinion of it; a part of our task which imposes the greatest difficulty on us, and our performance of which must at this moment be brief. Indeed, the work is obviously not exposed to much criticism. It never enters into details, and seldom goes beyond the most general principles, of the soundness of which few persons, we apprehend, will doubt; and it is in the application of them that all the difficulty and difference of opinions will be found. Moreover, the principles laid down are not only *general*, but they are few: so that the volume can only be viewed as a kind of introductory dissertation, pointing out the leading topics to be discussed in a treatise on its professed subject; and giving a cursory view of the manner in which they ought to be treated. Of the style in which it is written, we cannot possibly speak otherwise than in terms of high commendation; for it exhibits a rare specimen of clear and commanding eloquence, — perhaps a little too much displayed, and too highly ornamented, — but yet admirably calculated to place the matter in a striking and interesting point of view. It has also defects which we can by no means overlook. Much of the wit occasionally introduced is of a very inferior description; in proof of which opinion we need only refer to the introductory chapters, to the puerile discussion on the name of *Swaloal*, (which the author has assigned to the capital city of his imaginary island,) and to the observations on *Outs* and *Ins* by which it is followed; — to say nothing of the story about the watch, at page 149., or of the antiquarian remarks on the name of *Ludgate*, so oddly introduced at page 197. We have already stated that the allegorical and the narrative parts are of very slender merit: but we can easily suppose that the author, intending his work as a mere vehicle for the opinions which it contains, was very little solicitous about the machinery of it, and we may thus readily account for the inferiority of these portions. We intended, at first, to have discussed the publication without removing this thin veil of allegory, but we soon found it to be of so slender a texture that it was impossible to preserve it entire; and we have therefore treated the book as a political review, applicable to the existing state of our own country. The author's reason for using such a veil will at once occur to the reader. It is like the *incognito* under which a great man pursues his travels, or the veil under which an *intriguante* of Madrid or Naples carries on her designs. In neither case is the disguise intended actually to conceal that which it shades: but it may be used, if occasion should require, as evidence of an *intention* to conceal, and may in the one case diminish expence and trouble or in the other excite curiosity and admiration. It resembles a person in a Domino at a masquerade; who is, by agreement, sufficiently concealed to warrant his mixing in the business of the scene, without incurring all the responsibility of a character.

To a production such as this, it will be supposed that rumour has been forward in assigning an author; and we have little doubt, from the external and internal evidence of the case, that her conjecture is well-founded, in ascribing it to one whose talents, after having long adorned the bar and the senate, and after having filled one of the highest offices in the state with distinguished ability, are thus actively at work for the good of the community on some of the most momentous and most arduous topics which ever occupied the minds of statesmen. We have no hesitation in pronouncing that it is worthy of so high a parentage, as an attractive and luminous display of eloquence on the developement of principles perfectly constitutional.

Art. X. *Wat Tyler.* A Dramatic Poem. 12mo. pp. 70. 3s. 6d. sewed. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

Two mottoes have been ingeniously selected for the title-page of this drama, the first of which thus announces by implication the name of the writer:

> " Come listen to A TALE OF TIMES OF OLD! —
> Come, for ye know me — I am he who sung
> The " Maid of Arc," and I am he who framed
> Of " Thalaba" the wild and wondrous song."
> ' Southey!'

The second pithily appropriates also the same author's lines on a former occasion to the present production:

> " And I was once like this! ———
> — — — Twenty years
> Have wrought strange alteration!"
> ' Southey!!!'

Not another syllable elsewhere occurs to tell us who is the parent of this foundling, nor how or why it now makes its appearance. A recent proceeding in the Court of Chancery, however, affords some assistance in this respect. Application was made to the Chancellor, on the part of Mr. Southey, the Poet-Laureate, for an injunction to stop the circulation of this ' dramatic poem,' which it was said was offered to the world without his sanction or knowlege; which he had written in his younger days, when the sun of political righteousness had not illumined the depths of his understanding; and of which, now that he the said Mr. Southey had become somewhat acquainted with nobles and courts and princes, he had grown ashamed and repentant, inasmuch as nobles and courts and princes were therein treated with unbecoming irreverence and undeserved obloquy. The noble Judge, having *taken time* to peruse the publication, fully assented to its " right and title" to be thus characterized and branded; and well and truly deciding, therefore, that the author of so mischievous a production had no claim to the protection of that court in a question of *property*, his Lordship refused the injunction, and referred the farther consideration of the merits of the piece to that Aristarchus in political criticism, his Majesty's Attorney-General. Whether, *under all the circumstances*, this our learned and dread brother will exercise the wholesome severities of his office on the present occasion, we know not: but, in the mean time, we would endeavour to discharge our more humble functions, with all due caution and uprightness.

That twenty years have indeed "wrought strange alteration" in the political opinions of Mr. Southey, the public is fully aware; and that he may plead the general privilege of every man to change his sentiments, and his duty to grow wiser as he grows older, no one will deny. At the same time, he must equally admit the privilege of others to judge of the wisdom of his change; and of the motives which, as far as the world can perceive them, may have operated to produce it. In spite, also, of the almost universality of the fact that proselytes are intemperate defenders of their new faith, and illiberal antagonists of any who still hold that which they have forsaken, the calm and candid spectator will not fail to censure this intemperance, and to denounce this illiberality. We have had previous occasions of remarking that the present Poet-Laureate is chargeable with this conduct, towards persons who yet entertain sentiments in any degree resembling those which he has cast off as unfashionable and worn-out habiliments, and exchanged for the newer, richer, and more welcome garb of office: but we trust that his hostility will not equal, in force and extent, the opposition which certainly prevails between the doctrines inculcated in this drama, and those which now are seen to flow from the same author's pen. Indeed, were Wat Tyler and John Ball themselves living, they could not desire to have prepared for them speeches more adapted to their views and feelings than they would find in the pamphlet before us; and Mr. Southey must in course deeply regret that such inflammable materials are offered to the heated minds of the multitude at this juncture, from the circumstance (as we have heard) of his having formerly given away the manuscript of the poem, and its having fallen into hands which have made this use of it.

An extract from Hume's History of England is prefixed to the drama, which relates the insurrection of Wat Tyler, &c., in the time of Richard the Second, and the causes of the popular discontent. All this is, no doubt, well known to our readers; and we need only state that the piece itself is a versification of the main incidents that occurred, and that the personages introduced are Wat Tyler and his family, Hob Carter, Piers, the obnoxious Tax-Collector, Tom Miller, Jack Straw, John Ball, and the Mob;—the King, with some of his court, Walworth the mayor, Sir John Tresilian the Judge, &c. The author, however, has somewhat deviated from historic fact, in making Richard express his *fears* of the mob previously to his meeting them, when his subsequent conduct manifested such remarkable calm presence of mind; and in accelerating a perfidious attack on the multitude by the King's troops immediately after the amnesty. John Ball, "the seditious preacher," as Hume styles him, appears in proper costume as the instigator of rebellion, and the advocate of the absurd and pernicious doctrines of levelling all ranks and equalizing all property: but the author has also graced him with some fine sentiments of mercy and philanthropy. For example, when the mob cry out, 'Justice, justice!' Ball exclaims:

> 'Oh then remember mercy;
> And tho' your proud oppressors spar'd not you,
> Shew you excel them in humanity.
> They will use every art to disunite you,
> To conquer separately, by stratagem,
> Whom in a mass they fear — but be ye firm —
> Boldly demand your long-forgotten rights,
> Your sacred, your inalienable freedom —
> Be bold — be resolute — be merciful!
> And while you spurn the hated name of slaves,
> Shew you are men!'

When he has related to Piers the murder of the Archbishop in the Tower by Jack Straw, and Piers answers, 'he deserv'd his fate,' Ball replies:

> 'Justice can never link with cruelty.
> Is there among the catalogue of crimes
> A sin so black that only death can expiate?
> Will reason never rouse her from her slumbers,
> And darting thro' the veil her eagle eye,
> See in the sable garment of the law
> Revenge conceal'd? — this high priest has been haughty —
> He has oppress'd his vassals: tell me, Piers,
> Does his death remedy the ills he caused?
> Were it not better to repress his power
> Of doing wrong — that so his future life
> Might expiate the evils of the past,
> And benefit mankind?
>
> '*Piers.* But must not vice
> Be punished?
>
> '*J. Ball.* Is not punishment revenge?
> The momentary violence of anger
> May be excus'd: the indignant heart will throb
> Against oppression, and the outstretch'd arm
> Resent its injured feelings; the collector
> Insulted Alice, and roused the keen emotions
> Of a fond father. Tyler murder'd him.
>
> '*Piers.* Murder'd! — a most harsh word.
>
> '*J. Ball.* Yes, murder'd him:
> His mangled feelings prompted the bad act,

And Nature will almost commend the deed
That Justice blames: but will the awaken'd feelings
Plead with their heart-emoving eloquence
For the cool deliberate murder of Revenge?
Would you, Piers, in your calmer hour of reason
Condemn an erring brother to be slain?
Cut him at once from all the joys of life,
All hopes of reformation! to revenge
The deed his punishment cannot recall?
My blood boil'd in me at the fate of Tyler,
Yet I revenged not.

'*Piers.* Oh my Christian father!
They would not argue thus humanely on us,
Were we within their power.

'*J. Ball.* I know they would not:
But we must pity them that they are vicious,
Not imitate their vice.'

The first act opens with a pretty innocent song on May-day, and the second with one not quite so innoxious on the different lot of the poor and the rich. We may quote the former:

' ALICE, PIERS, &c. — *Song.*

' Cheerful on this holiday,
Welcome we the merry May.

' On every sunny hillock spread,
The pale primrose rears her head;
Rich with sweets the western gale
Sweeps along the cowslip'd dale.
Every bank with violets gay,
Smiles to welcome in the May.

' The linnet from the budding grove,
Chirps her vernal song of love.
The copse resounds the throstle's notes,
On each wild gale sweet music floats;
And melody from every spray,
Welcomes in the merry May.
Cheerful on this holiday,
Welcome we the merry May. [*Dance.*'

Tyler's daughter Alice afterward approaches him with youthful gaiety, devoid of care:

' Did we not dance it well to-day, my father?
You know I always lov'd these village sports,
Even from my infancy, and yet methinks
I never tript along the mead so gaily.
You know they chose me queen, and your friend Piers
Wreath'd me this cowslip garland for my head —

Is it not simple? — you are sad, my father!
You should have rested from your work to-day,
And given a few hours up to merriment —
But you are so serious —
' *Tyler.* Serious, my good girl!
I may well be so: when I look at thee
It makes me sad! thou art too fair a flower
To bear the wintry wind of poverty!'

In strong and poetical language, Tyler then argues with Piers on the imprudence of his nascent passion for Alice and on the evils of poverty: but they are described with too great a mixture of the general doctrines of the piece to allow of our quoting them. The catastrophe of the tax-gatherer next occurs, the aukward cause of which is but aukwardly and unintelligibly managed: the mob then rise; and the work of rebellion proceeds. *We* proceed no farther:— we beg to "*get out at Hounslow;*" — Mr. Southey may "*go on to Windsor.*" (See Horne Tooke's Trial.)

Art. XI. *Hints addressed to Proprietors of Orchards,* and to Growers of Fruit in general, comprising Observations on the present State of the Apple-Trees, in the Cider Countries. Made in a Tour during the last Summer. Also the Natural History of the Aphis Lanata or American Blight, and other Insects destructive to Fruit-Trees. By William Salisbury. Small 8vo. pp. 200. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The honest English dessert of apples, pears, and cherries, and the honest English beverage *yclept* cider and perry, are articles of no trifling importance in the southern districts of our island. It is admitted, however, that our orchards are threatened with an universal decline, and the genuine golden pippin has become even a more rare phænomenon than a genuine golden guinea. From an eminent practical gardener, who has enjoyed frequent and favourable opportunities of ascertaining the cause and indicating the remedy of this serious evil, we might reasonably expect much salutary instruction; and we have not been altogether disappointed by the volume before us. Mr. Salisbury is a convert to Mr. Knight's theory of the degeneracy of some of our finest varieties of fruits: but he moreover lays great stress on the negligence and mismanagement of the existing race of fruit-growers. In the course of perusing his strictures, we perfectly comprehend some of the kinds of abuse to which he alludes: but we could have wished, for the sake of distinctness, that he had been more explicit and precise in stating the points of difference between the present and former modes of conducting this department of rural economy and horticulture. Pomona, it should seem, still bestows her smiles on Jersey, Guernsey, and Kent; and we have reason to suspect that, in all ages, good sense and discretion have made their local visitations, and exerted their influence, sometimes in one corner of the earth and sometimes in another. Still, whether our forefathers tamely permitted insects and parasitical plants to prey on the vitals of their trees, and injured them by inconsiderate lopping, or whether such abuses be of comparatively recent date, we very cordially join in reprobating the abuses themselves. At the same time, observers of less professional skill and experience than Mr. Salisbury possesses might, without pretending to the gift of divination, have indicated these and other highly objectionable practices.

Again, the author descants with much minuteness and complacency, and even with the help of plates, on the proceedings of *Phalæna phæorrhea*, *Papilio cratægi*, *Scarabæus melolontha*, &c. as if their natural history had now been divulged for the first time, although he favours us with few directions for avoiding their ravages. This last remark, however, does not apply to his observations on *Aphis lanata*, over whose hosts he seems, with the blessing of Cloacina, to have finally prevailed:

> 'Having thus,' says he, 'discovered its subterraneous habitation, I had recourse to the following expedient: while the frost was in the ground, and the snow lay on the surface, I caused a necessary-house to be emptied, and its contents taken in a soft state, and spread regularly over the ground, in quantity sufficient, as my men believed, to kill all the apple-trees. When the thaw came, the whole was of course washed down to the roots, and ever since I have had the satisfaction of finding the trees perfectly clear from the insect, and growing most luxuriantly; and to this hour all that are left unsold remain healthy. From the success of the above experiment, I should recommend that the trees be continually cleaned so far as relates to the branches, and that the roots be made as bare as possible in the winter-season, and a dressing of the above or a similar material applied to the roots; and I have little doubt of its success in curtailing the evil to a certain degree, although it may probably be the destruction of some of the trees: yet if we can by any means lessen the ravages of this destructive monster, we ought not to consider this loss as material.'

The merely preceptive portion of these hints is far from copious, and not always sufficiently specific. We are told, for example, that the *younger* a tree is, when removed into an orchard, the better: but is there no limit to youth in this case? and, if there be, what is it?—We are next reminded that trees should be adapted to the soil, which is too vague and general an expression for practical purposes. Particular attention is very properly recommended to draining the soil, and to collecting manure of animal substances; which should be allowed to rot, and to incorporate with earth, before it is applied. That none may plead ignorance of the ways and means, we are obligingly informed that 'the neighbourhood of Saffron-hill affords a large variety of these precious things.' — The eggs, or the young of insects, should be picked away; or, in some instances, they may be destroyed by exposing them to the influence of frost.

'The cleaning trees by scraping and cutting off all the moss and misletoe, and thinning the trees of the wood where it is necessary, washing the trees all over in the winter-season with hot lime and water, with a little oil or soft soap, to which sulphur and soot are excellent additions. No insect can exist long in such a mixture; and those materials are also certain antidotes to all species of Lichen *, the moss that usually grows on apple-trees. Many of our insects are nurtured in this substance, as well as in the ground under the trees. By frequently turning up the soil, numberless insects are destroyed in the chrysalis state, both by the weather and by the birds that are always in attendance on this operation.'

Dead hedges, it is added, should be avoided as far as it is possible; the dead wood that is cut from the trees, fallen leaves, and other rubbish, should be removed from the surface, and burnt; and the grass should be kept eaten down by geese. Finally, protection to the trees against the wind and cattle should be so contrived as to afford no encouragement to the harbouring of insects. — Such are the sum and substance of the author's admonitions. He adds:

'Since the foregoing pages have been printed, I have this evening, 20th Nov. 1815, passed through Covent-garden, and seen upwards of 1000 casks of apples that have been imported from France, and not less than an equal quantity heaped together in warehouses near Fleet-market, containing in the whole not less than 40,000 bushels. The fruit itself consists of fine specimens of several varieties, which appear with us nearly extinct, and these are grown mostly on the opposite coast to this country; and as there must be some cause for the abundant crop in that country in a season when we have scarcely any, would it not be advisable for our agricultural societies to send over some intelligent person to inspect the nature of the orchards in that country, and if possible endeavour to ascertain in what the difference of culture consists? Some writer on agriculture, I think Mr. Young, recommends

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'* All species of mosses bloom in the winter, at which time they are most easily destroyed. I have this winter seen many apple-trees in Herefordshire so incumbered with this substance and misletoe, as to have formed a favourable place of retreat for a white owl, and where it would have rested safe from the prying eye of even a cockney-sportsman at noon-day.'

mends to young farmers at certain seasons to "take their nags and see what their neighbours are about;" would it not be equally prudent for the growers of fruit here to endeavour to find out what their rivals on the other side of the Channel are doing? The fruit I have this evening seen is, at a moderate calculation, worth twenty thousand pounds, at the price it is selling for in London markets, and this has been paid for in hard cash, to those who are our political enemies.

The Golden Pippin,
Pomme Grise,
Holland Pippin,
Cockle Pippin,
Wheeler's Russet,
Royal Russet,
Golden Russet,
Pile's Russet,
Golden Rennet,
Fern's Pippin,

were among the sorts I noticed. There are also some other very fine-looking varieties which are new to my view, but none appear better than the above, which are fine in the extreme.'

Mr. S. ascribes the superior produce of the orchards, on the other side of the water, less to the influence of climate, (which, within such a short space, cannot be considerable,) than to the attention which the French, during a series of revolutionary warfare that nearly annihilated their foreign trade, were constrained to pay to their internal resources, and especially to the various produce of their soil; while our monopoly of European commerce, and our enhanced prices of grain, withdrew the cares of the husbandman from the orchard to the field. — He then devotes a few pages to a descriptive catalogue of cider-apples, in which our drooping spirits are cheered with the mention of the *Downton Pippin, Grange Apple, Bringewood* and *Wormsley Pippin*, and others of Mr. Knight's *nova progenies*, which promise to realize on our shores the gardens of the Hesperides. — A list is subjoined of upwards of forty varieties of apples *worth cultivation.* Similar lists are exhibited of pears, plums, cherries, &c. — In the section on Peaches and Nectarines, we find this notice:

'Our climate is nearly as far north as the peach will ripen without artificial heat and protection; it is not to be wondered at, therefore, that it should be so uncertain as to its bearing. To counteract the bad effect caused to this fruit by the change of weather we are so subject to in the spring, a number of means have been recommended for covering the trees over in the season of blooming and setting of the fruit, such as woollen netting and bunting, (which is a kind of thin woollen stuff made for flags of ships,) but these, at the same time [that] they protect the tree from the cold winds, require in fine weather to be removed to admit a free circulation, and also the sun's rays, which is attended with labour. The best mode of protecting trees, in such cases, is by affording *it* something that may remain on without the labour of changing it, and a very useful and cheap covering of this kind I have used with great success in the long green moss found in woods (Hypnum of several species). This should be laid next the wall at the time the tree is nailed, and left its full length to wrap round the smaller branches, either by the motion of the wind, the wet, or the frost, either of which will operate more or less on it; in dry weather when the sun shines it becomes relaxed and spreading, gives room for the sun and air to get to the bloom and the young fruit, but by moisture it becomes in some degree compressed, and folds round the branches; it is also the more convenient covering, approaching in its nature to those operations which the leaves perform as a protection to the fruit in a more advanced state; it is moreover very cheap, and very easy in its application. After the fruit is set and the season advances, it should be pulled out from the branches, as it otherwise affords shelter for insects and vermin when the fruit is ripe.

'I know of no convenience in modern gardening which equals this, and it is well worth every person's trying who has trees to protect. It may be used with an equal degree of success with apricots, cherries, or other early fruits.'

A section is allotted to the explanation of Mr. Knight's mode of procuring new varieties of fruit from the seeds, and another to the author's method of packing up trees that are to be conveyed to a distance, in *sphagnum palustre:* but, as these particulars, though interesting and important, have already found their way into other publications, we shall here forbear from touching on them. — For the rest, the motives which prompted Mr. Salisbury to send this little volume into the world are, we have reason to believe, of the most pure and honourable kind; and, although his lucubrations give more abundant promise of fine fruit than of fine writing, the circumstances of his situation and his desire to benefit the community should make the shafts of literary criticism fall harmless to the ground.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR MARCH, 1817.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Bertram:* A Poetical Tale, in Four Cantos. By Sir Egerton Brydges, Bart. K.J. M.P. Second Edition. Crown 8vo. pp. 86. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

This is a re-print from the first edition of Bertram, which issued from the author's private press at Lee Priory; and it is prefaced by a very pleasing although somewhat exuberant essay on the qualities and attractions of poetical genius. The same thoughts have been enforced, but not with the same illustrations, in sundry essays by Sir Egerton Brydges; and he certainly has a sufficient respect for his office as a poet. Yet this is a feeling which we are so far from condemning, that we conceive it to be one of the prime sources of excellence in all intellectual arts. Would that we could say it was as common as it ought to be, even among our most popular authors: but we are ashamed to think how some of the noblest efforts of the modern muse have been directed to frivolous or to unworthy objects, have been deficient in morals, and destitute of the lofty interest of story and character.

Sir Egerton Brydges has here given an amusing little tale; and, though too hackneyed in some of its incidents, and certainly more prosaic than any simplicity of taste can allow in many of its passages, it possesses some examples of chaste and classical composition. — We shall not diminish the pleasure which poetical readers may derive from this small volume, by any analysis of its contents: but we shall give a specimen of the sort of entertainment which they may expect, in an extract or two from different cantos.

> 'Now homeward comes the youth in pensive mood,
> On those wild sorrows of his heart to brood.
> Ye towers, that long have call'd your absent lord,
> And fondly hop'd that glory's proud reward
> Once more your reverend battlements should grace,
> And deck with honours new the noble race,
> Whom time and chance could never yet efface!
> He comes! However yet disguis'd in name,
> Your Bertram comes, his ancient home to claim!
> Hark, the hall echoes! Wide the massy gate
> Unfolds the venerable castle's state:
> Across the spacious courts he hurries on;
> While round him flit the ghosts of pleasures gone.
> Grim-visag'd chiefs look frowning from the walls;
> And each soft beauty, as in pity, calls!
>
> 'Scenes, which the ray of infant joy illum'd,
> Ere yet the bud of boyish hope had bloom'd;
> Which through long vistas golden views display'd!
> And fairy forms in golden light array'd!'—
>
> 'Fast came the shades of night, and blacker still
> Tremendous clouds came gathering o'er the hill,
> Where up the steep their solitary way
> Strove from pursuit the fugitives to stray.
> Descends the bursting torrent on their heads;
> In vain Fitz-John his covering mantle spreads;
> Drench'd with the rain, and shivering with the cold,
> Onward they cease their toilsome course to hold;
> And 'neath an oak, whose branches wide are cast,
> Wait till the pelting of the storm is past.
> Her head against the rude emboss'd trunk
> Lucasta leaning, into slumber sunk:
> A restless, feverish slumber! Oft she sigh'd,
> And oft some half-form'd shrieks of horror tried,
> While watch'd th' affrighted hero by her side!'

We are, however, aware that the effect of such metrical narratives must be partially lost by curtailment and interruption; and, assuredly, the principal merit of Bertram consists in the connected series of its events. The language is not so good as the design; indeed, the former is often very faulty, and such instances as the subjoined might with ease be multiplied:

> ' Forth to the world the visionary *lad*.'
> ' Now other acts *'twere wiser to begin*.'
> ' Vice *lolls* at ease,' &c. &c.

Avoiding bombast, the author occasionally falls into tameness and familiarity:

> " *Serpit humi tutus nimiùm timidusque procellæ*."

Art. 13. *The Naiad*; a Tale. With other Poems. 8vo. pp. 63. Taylor and Hessey. 1816.

To the lovers of novelty, but not of either true poetry or good taste, we commend this singular composition; (founded, it is said, on a Scotch ballad;) in which is given a somewhat ludicrous account of one Lord Hubert, who, while travelling with his Page by the side of a river to the embraces of his fair lady, suddenly encounters a nymph of the stream, and is seduced to leap with her into the water: by which means, unluckily, being an inexpert swimmer, — though deservedly, being " a false loon," — he is drowned. The Page suddenly disappears: the nymph rises no more from the watery element: the lady-fair is " embraced by marble," *Anglicè*, dies; and the sole remnant of these singular *dramatis personæ* is a voice, which is heard in the autumnal evenings on a certain mountain, ' chanting a ditty lovely and lowly.' Such is ' the Naiad:' the ' *other poems*' are superior to the former, inasmuch as they are more concise, and on the whole rather less absurd.

Art. 14. *Messiah*: a Poem, in Twenty-eight Books. By Joseph Cottle. Royal 8vo. pp. 530. 1l. 1s. Boards. Button and Co.

Our predecessors in the office of criticism had, no doubt, frequent occasion to lament the abuse of the press which the dullness or the ignorance of many of their cotemporary authors occasioned: but we cannot help believing that this abuse has never existed to such an extent as at the present moment; and this not solely from the increased number of candidates for literary reputation. There is, we contend, a more than proportional increase in the quantity of *good-for-nothing* publications, which inundate and breed a pestilence in the republic of letters. Incorrectness, idleness, want of genius, and want of knowlege, seem to be no obstacles to this lamentably augmented evil. Shame has flown away from our scribblers altogether; and the poet's words seem verified in London,

> —— " *morantur*
> *Pauci ridiculum et fugientem ex urbe pudorem*."

If this were not the case, would it be possible for Mr. Cottle, unblushingly, to have come forwards with a handsome royal octavo, elegantly printed, on good paper, and containing—"*Diique Deæque omnes!*"—such a farrago as no human imagination could possibly have conceived to be within the compass even of the modern English press! We cannot find throughout the poem one spark of genius; it is merely a flat versification of the Bible, degrading the sacred volume as far as it can be degraded by human means. We shall be contented with one specimen, taken at random:

> ' Now, in the midst of a stupendous vault,
> That boundless seem'd, Satan and Mammon halt.
> The chief, impatient to cast off the veil
> Which screen'd him from his subjects, gives the "Hail!"
> And lo! he stands the monarch of the place,
> Huge and commanding! Joy, in every face,
> Burst forth, whilst each, as he beheld the sight,
> His torment half forgot, and with delight
> (Deem'd pain on earth,) with a permission high,
> Hurried to pour his ardent loyalty,
> While shout, and uproar wild, unbounded fly.
> ' Satan now sees, in one vast column, throng,
> With shouts, that vault and fiery rock prolong,
> Myriads of souls accurs'd. "Our King," they cried.
> " Now will we spurn our chains, this sulphurous tide,
> These fearful realms, and, in our might, ascend,
> Led by our monarch, the infernal's friend!
> And in 'mid air, august, with Heaven contend."
> The chief exclaim'd, aloud, "Oh powers of might!
> Your rage is mine, 'gainst Heaven and sons of light!
> But we must curb our spirits, yet awhile,
> And, unsubdued, at all our torments, smile.
> We must th' imperishable hate sustain
> Till that blest moment when we burst our chain:—
> Uprise to war! our countless legions hear,
> While we, for mortal combat, lift the spear,
> Beginning, not to end, our high career!"
> ' One burst of universal joyance rose,
> Stupendous. Each the glance disdainful throws
> At foes, beheld not, save in fancy's eye,
> And half exclaims, exultant, "Victory!"'

We beg our readers to recollect that it is not on silent unobtrusive dullness that we have inflicted the foregoing censure, but on *Vanity*; which dares to *abuse the splendor of the press* for the purpose of blazoning its own useless and worthless efforts, in a cause that disdains such defenders, and is daily suffering from their interference.

Art. 15. *Nautic Hours.* 8vo. pp. 78. sewed. Stockdale. 1816.

If ever that "golden mediocrity," which the Roman bard so forcibly recommends to us, may fairly be considered as an undesirable possession, it is, we think, in the department of poetry. When any thing in its nature sublime and exalted is brought far below its original elevation, we become of course more sensible of the degradation; and if a person, born to the inheritance of rank and opulence, be sunken by adversity into the opposite state, the great contrast naturally tends to embitter his condition, and to make him more alive to the perception of his distress. So also if poetry, the nature of which is noble and magnificent, be suffered to degenerate into the wretched trifling strains with which the press daily harasses us, the effect produces an increase of our displeasure, and renders us the more impatient of the disgrace to which the muse is thus subjected.

The poems before us afford a specimen of this kind of insipid versification; though, if we suppose the bard to have been confined, during his inspired moments, within the limits of a vessel at sea, we must pardon him for killing some of his 'nautic hours' by composing verses: but why publish them? His book is, in fact, what his motto declares it to be, "a thing of shreds and patches;" consisting of odes to the sea, stanzas on Trafalgar, Nelson, Benbow, &c. &c. The burden of his song is naval glory: he seems to delight, for the most part, in descriptions of sea-fights; and the ideas are such as would naturally present themselves to a mind accustomed to naval affairs, viz. the explosion of ships, the firing of cannon, blood streaming in purple torrents, and so forth. These events are found very happily productive of a convenient number of rhyming words, such as, *battle, rattle, — blood, flood, — grave, wave, — cry, victory,* &c.; and occasional liberties are also taken with the King's English: as 'when anguish PANGS the lingering hours.' The author's mode of colouring, too, is sometimes rather offensive to nature; as when he talks of 'purple stars,' and when he paints the water white, black, and red:

> 'When the white foam of the water
> Black with ruin, red with slaughter.'

On the whole, we must confess ourselves unable to pay any flattering compliment to this writer, on the success of his poetical attempt.

Art. 16. *The Restoration of the Works of Art to Italy:* A Poem. By Felicia Hemans. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 37. 4s. 6d. Murray. 1816.

We have much pleasure in hailing the classical and elegant production of a female writer in the little pamphlet before us. The subject is well chosen, and justice is done to its claims by some very musical and expressive lines. We think that our readers will agree with us in our favourable opinion of such passages as the following:

> 'Lo! where thy sons, oh Rome! a godlike train,
> In imaged majesty return again!
> Bards, chieftains, monarchs, tower with mien august,
> O'er scenes that shrine their venerable dust.
> Those forms, those features, luminous with soul,
> Still o'er thy children seem to claim control;
> With awful grace arrest the pilgrim's glance,
> Bind his rapt soul in elevating trance,

And bid the past, to fancy's ardent eyes,
From time's dim sepulchre in glory rise.

'Souls of the lofty! whose undying names
Rouse the young bosom still to noblest aims;
Oh! with your images could fate restore
Your own high spirit to your sons once more;
Patriots and heroes! could those flames return,
That bade your hearts with freedom's ardours burn;
Then from the sacred ashes of the first,
Might a new Rome in Phœnix-grandeur burst!
With one bright glance dispel th' horizon's gloom,
With one loud call wake empire from the tomb;
Bind round her brows her own triumphal crown,
Lift her dread Ægis, with majestic frown,
Unchain her eagle's wing, and guide his flight,
To bathe its plumage in the fount of light.

'Vain dream! degraded Rome!' ——

We are far from exculpating the fair writer from the charge of *verbiage* in some parts of the above extract: but, really, any specimens of a polished and correct style in poetry are so welcome to our minds, wearied and exhausted with the perusal of the mighty mass of modern doggrel, that we receive them with every indication of content. — We add the description of the Apollo Belvidere:

'Bright with stern beauty, breathing wrathful fire,
In all the grandeur of celestial ire,
Once more thine own, th' immortal Archer's form,
Sheds radiance round with more than Being warm!
Oh! who could view, nor deem that perfect frame,
A living temple of ethereal flame?
Lord of the day-star! how may words pourtray
Of thy chaste glory one reflected ray?
Whate'er the soul could dream, the hand could trace,
Of regal dignity, and heavenly grace;
Each purer effluence of the fair and bright,
Whose fitful gleams have *broke* on mortal sight;
Each bold idea, borrowed from the sky,
To vest th' embodied form of Deity;
All, all in thee ennobled and refined,
Breathe and enchant, transcendently combined!
Son of Elysium! years and ages gone,
Have bowed, in speechless homage, at thy throne,
And days unborn, and nations yet to be,
Shall gaze, absorbed in ecstasy, on thee!'

ASTRONOMY.

Art. 17. *Ladies' Astronomy*. Translated from the French of Jerome De Lalande. By Mrs. W. Pengree. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Darton and Co.

The popular parts of astronomy, viz. the general construction and motions of the solar system, the changes of seasons, the alternations of day and night, the phases of the moon, the nature and causes of eclipses, and numerous other celestial phænomena, are so extremely interesting, and at the same time so easily explained and comprehended, that it is much to be regretted that any well-educated person should be ignorant of them; and we are willing to hope that but few in the present day are unfurnished with some ideas, more or less correct, of these attractive subjects.

The celebrated author of the little work here translated did not disdain, after having composed one of the most complete treatises on astronomy that had ever appeared at the time of its publication, to undertake the task of forming a popular compendium of the same science, expressly for the initiation of the ladies; and we should be glad that they would reward his gallantry by reading his book, since we are convinced that it would be the means of their own improvement: although it is professedly written rather to *excite* than to *gratify* curiosity and inquiry. Indeed, the limits of it will not admit of much satisfactory information on a science of so great an extent, and abounding in so many and such varied phænomena.

M. Lalande commences with a short historical preface, from which we make the ensuing abstract, hoping that it may call forth some emulation in those young ladies into whose hands it may chance to fall;

'We have, already, many instances of females, who have evinced a laudable spirit of inquiry, and great perseverance in the pursuit of this science. The beautiful Hypatia, who was assassinated by the clergy at Alexandria, in the year 415, taught astronomy there, and composed several works. Maria Cunitz, the daughter of a physician of Silesia, published some astronomical tables in 1650; and Maria Claire Eimart Muller, the wife and daughter of two well-known astronomers, was also well versed in this science. In 1680, Joanna Dumée gave lectures on the Copernican system; and the wife of Hevelius made observations with him. Manfredi's sister calculated the ephemeris of Boulogne; as did Kirch's three sisters, for a length of time, that of Berlin: his wife, also, published, in 1712, a work on astronomy. The Marchioness du Chatelet translated and published the works of Newton; and the Countess of Purinina, to whom the passage in Scripture, "*Una mulier fuit confusionem genti*," was justly applied, founded an observatory in Poland. Madame Lepaute, who died in 1788, calculated the ephemeris of the academy for more than ten years; and the widow of Mr. Edwards is now employed in England, in the composition of the *Nautical Almanack*. Madame du Piery, the first lady who taught astronomy at Paris, made several calculations of eclipses, to ascertain the moon's motion; and Miss Caroline Herschel, whose proficiency in the science is so well known, has discovered five comets. Madame la Duchesse de Gotha does not wish to be quoted, but she has, likewise, made several calculations;

and my niece, Françoise de Lalande, assists her husband in his observations, whence she draws her conclusions by calculations. She has reduced ten thousand stars, and has published three hundred pages of *Horary Tables for the Navy;* an immense work for one of her age and sex, which may be found in my *Abridgment of Navigation.*

'We have here given sufficient instances of females who have distinguished themselves, even under every disadvantage of education and prejudice, to convince us that their abilities are not inferior, even to those of our sex who have obtained the highest celebrity in the sciences.'

The chapters are eighteen in number, viz. On the apparent diurnal motion of the heavenly bodies; on the magnitude and measurements of the earth; on the constellations; on the apparent motion of the sun; on the moon; on the calendar; on eclipses; on the system of the world; on attraction and gravitation; on the methods of measuring the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth; on refraction; on the satellites of Jupiter, Saturn, &c.; on comets; on the figures of the planets; on the plurality of worlds; on the tides; on the discovery of the planet Herschel; and on the discovery of the four new planets, Ceres, Pallas, Juno, and Vesta: but the two latter chapters are due to the translator; who, in these as well as in the other parts of this little volume, has performed her task with judgment and accuracy. We must, however, except one or two inadvertencies, or press-errors, which we point out in order that they may be corrected in any future edition. Thus at page 66. the squares of the times are said to be *equal* (instead of *proportional*) to the cubes of the distances; in page 121. Gauss is written *Gauſs*, and Burckhardt *Burchhardt*: the idea also of a planet being 'dashed in pieces, no doubt, from its contact with a comet,' (p. 122.) is not consistent with the astronomy of the nineteenth century.

POLITICS.

Art. 18. *The Colonial Policy of Great Britain*, considered with relation to her North American Provinces, and West-India Possessions; wherein the dangerous Tendency of American Competition is developed, and the Necessity of recommencing a colonial System, on a vigorous and extensive Scale, exhibited and defended; with Plans for the Promotion of Emigration, and Strictures on the Treaty of Ghent. By a British Traveller. 8vo. pp. 270. 8s. Boards. Printed at Glasgow, and sold in London by Baldwin and Co. 1816.

We have in this volume a fresh proof that, however greatly the principles of political economy may be in favour among our literary countrymen on the north of the Tweed, they have as yet made very little impression on the mercantile community in that part of the kingdom. We see here a gentleman who, after having travelled throughout the United States for commercial purposes, has taken the pains to write a work in support of those ideas of restriction and prohibition, which ought long ago to have been expelled not only from the statute-book, but from the creed of every person connected with the management of public business, or the direction of a mercantile establishment. He begins (Introd. p. 24.) by pitying very kindly our men in office, for their limited opportunities of information; and, to mend the matter, he proposes to employ a number of 'secret emissaries, who, under the guise of travellers, should visit the United States, mix in various societies, inspect the forts and sea-ports, &c. without exciting the least suspicion.' We may be permitted to ask, in the first place, whether this very honourable scheme is likely to be prosecuted on the scale which he proposes, in any well-governed country, without the danger of detection; and, in the next, whether any writer, after such a specimen of his delicacy, has a right to expatiate on the unamiable part of the American character, or to obtain attention when he comes forwards with schemes of extensive alteration in the mode of conducting our commerce?

It would much exceed our limits to attempt any analysis or summary of the mass of miscellaneous matter discussed, or rather hastily introduced, in this singular production. The general scope of the writer is to represent the Americans as our inveterate enemies, and to preach to us the necessity of keeping in our own hands that portion of trade which our West-India colonists have yet been allowed to carry on with the United States. To the latter we should have no objection, were it not extremely subversive of the prosperity of our colonies; which can exist only by being allowed to purchase their stores in the cheapest quarter, and to sell to foreigners a part of their produce whenever the market at home is over-stocked. Without these advantages, how can we expect a British planter, burdened with taxation, and subjected to a variety of heavy expences, to afford his produce at a price which will stand competition with that of the French, the Spanish, or the Dutch settlers? The plan proposed by this writer, instead of throwing into Great Britain additional wealth from her colonies, would have the effect of eventually extinguishing the cultivation of the latter; and of driving their inhabitants to the Spanish Main, Cuba, Louisiana, or wherever else they could find the means of raising and bringing their produce to market without restriction or oppression. This fundamental principle once laid down, it can answer no purpose to follow the author of the volume before us into his various details on particular branches of traffic; such as the lumber-trade, the trade in horses and horned cattle, or even into the fisheries. Still less are we disposed to accompany him in his strictures on the treaty of Ghent; or to adopt his opinion that the terms, to which our negotiators assented on that occasion, were either 'replete with folly or pregnant with future evil.'

Those who entertain a different opinion from us on the subject of colonial policy, or who imagine that we are dealing out too hard measure to this advocate of the old theory, will do well to put his reasoning to the test in a few specific instances. Let them turn, for instance, to the chapter on our West-India colonies, and observe (p. 158.) what a feeble and barren statement follows the large promises conveyed in the title. Again, they will find in various passages (pp. 107. 109. 175.) abundant examples of the confidence with which he draws a general inference from a particular case, without ever discovering any consciousness of his unacquaintance with the leading principles of public wealth. Those principles would have told him that the true way to promote our own prosperity is to consult the peace, and even the welfare, of the nations with whom we trade; that the United States are of all others the people who will purchase most largely of our manufacturers; and that the extent of these purchases, and the punctuality of payment, will depend entirely on the degree of commercial prosperity existing among them.

The only point of consequence, in which we can agree with this writer, is that of emigration; which, with him, we consider as by no means a detriment to the mother-country. In closing our report of his book, we cannot, on any account, encourage him to come again before the public until he is better stored with general views, and disposed to enter on the discussion of national questions without the irritation and prejudice which naturally affect the mind, after so sharp a war with the people of whom he principally treats.

NOVELS.

Art. 19. *Six Weeks at Long's.* By a late Resident. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Colburn. 1817.

Long's Hotel in Bond-Street is the place indicated in this title, and the intention of the work is to display the characters of various *fashionables* of the present day who may occasionally reside there, or with whom the guests at that house may intermix in the upper circles of society. Most of these portraits are such likenesses that even we, grave and secluded book-worms as we are, can identify them; and it is to the skill with which they are drawn, and the poignancy with which they are criticized, that the production must be indebted for its favourable reception, if it has experienced such as report alleges to have been its good fortune. To the other requisites and merits of a novel, in plot, incident, &c., it has not much claim: but the writer is certainly not unable to use his pen with effect.

Art. 20. *Headlong Hall.* 12mo. 6s. Boards. Hookham. 1816.

A clever little burlesque on all the favourite *hobbies*, whether of men of science or taste, of amateurs or professors, of sciolists or philosophers, of perfectionists or deteriorationists, of maintainers of the rectilinear, circular, or ziz-zag progress of the human mind, —of the optimists, in a word, or the pessimists, or the *stationers*, of all descriptions. Advocates of every system, and examples of every fancy, meet together at the Christmas table of a convivial Welsh esquire, and their conversations form the principal business of the book. A spice of adventure seasons the conclusion of the volume; which, however, does not profess to depend on *story* for its interest. To all curious or even careless observers of the solemn and important whims of the day, it will afford a pleasant evening's amusement; and we recommend it as a very harmless care-killer to a numerous class of readers.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 21. *A Dictionary of Religious Opinions:* or, concise Account of the various Denominations, into which the Profession of Christianity is divided; including a View of the ecclesiastical Government, and Order of Worship peculiar to each Sect. Alphabetically aranged. By William Jones, Author of the History of the Waldenses, &c. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Co.

Mr. Jones, we think, has fairly described his own work in the following paragraph of his preface:

'The statement of sentiments in these pages has been drawn from authentic sources, supplied chiefly by the principal leaders of the respective parties, and the utmost care has been taken to avoid every degree of misrepresentation.

'The want of such a work must have been long felt by the Christian public, to whom scarcely any thing has been submitted, in a portable form, that could bear the character of fidelity, or which has been sufficiently condensed and copious to satisfy the inquisitive or intelligent. The reader will here meet with nothing that implies the non-importance of religious sentiment, nothing that tends to neutralize his feelings, to bias his judgment in favour of any particular creed, or lead him insensibly to adopt a system of indifferentism, under the specious and deceptive names of candour and liberality; but he will see things as they are, the Christian church as it is, with its diversified forms of worship and modes of doctrine, and be left to form his own judgment.'

It is no part of the author's plan to treat of antient, and now extinct and forgotten, varieties of religious opinion; and, judging from this passage in his account of Arianism, we should conclude that his researches into early ecclesiastical history have not been very accurate: 'Arians,' say she, 'derive their name from Arius, who lived in the beginning of the fourth century, though his doctrine had been in effect propagated by Ebion and Cerinthus, as early as the time of the Apostles.' Arianism, which represents the Son as created out of nothing, and superior in dignity and glory to all the other works of the Father, as existing before all worlds, and the instrument of their creation, might as well be said to be the same in effect with Athanasianism as with the doctrine of the Ebionites and Cerinthus, which maintained his simple and proper humanity.

Mr. Jones writes as a partizan, but in general with liberality and moderation. At the risk, however, of strengthening an opinion respecting us which he expresses at p. 239.*, we shall comply with the request of a respected friend, who desires us to state that the author has given some cause of complaint to the Soçinians by the subsequent passage in his account of them, which is otherwise fair and candid.

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* We deny the validity of this opinion: we are not the advocates of any party or sect; and on this head we would rather repeat on our own behalf the declaration which Mr. Jones has himself made in his preface, and which we have already quoted.

'One Socinian writer wishes it to be understood that he has discovered three out of the four Evangelists to be spurious; another endeavours to prove prayer to be a thing nugatory and vain; a third has attempted to put down public worship altogether, as being little better than hypocrisy; and a fourth opposes the morality of the Sabbath, recommending the revival of the Book of Sports on that day; while another denies the doctrine of the resurrection and the general judgment, which others of them had pronounced the only discoveries of rational Christianity.'

On this passage our friend observes: "The sentiments of Dr. Geddes respecting the divine authority of Moses might as well be laid to the charge of the Catholics, as those of Mr. Evanson to the Unitarians. Mr. J. should know that, till a Bampton-lecturer arose to slay the slain, Dr. Priestley alone had entered the lists against Mr. Evanson, and vindicated the authority of those books of Scripture which he had impeached. It is not apparent who is the anonymous subject of the charge of endeavouring to prove prayer to be nugatory: but, when Mr. Wakefield attacked public worship, a crowd of Unitarian writers signalized themselves in its defence. The author of the Letters to a Lady in answer to Mr. Wilberforce is probably the person indicated as *opposing the morality of the Sabbath*, by which Mr. J. means, denying the good effect of a sabbatical observance of the Lord's day: he should have quoted the passage in his writings in which he recommends the revival of the Book of Sports. The allusion to the sentiments of Mr. Cappe, at the close of the paragraph, is as unjust as all the rest: though he denied the doctrine of the resurrection and the general judgment, he maintained those of a future life and general retribution as tenets known only by revelation; and he actually retrograded towards orthodoxy, by believing that a future state commences immediately after death."

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *Private Memoirs*, which, with the Work of M. Hue, and the Journal of Clery, complete the History of the Captivity of the Royal Family of France in the Temple. Translated from the French, with Notes by the Translator. Small 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1817.

Although this title-page does not announce the name of the writer of the Memoirs, the half-title terms them *the Duchess of Angoulême's Journal*, and the translator says in his preface that 'the work is avowed at Paris.' The translator himself, however, is anonymous, and *a note by the French editor* is equally without the sanction of any name. We cannot but consider it as remarkable that a production so ascribed should be thus unsupported on both sides of the Channel; yet we do not suspect that it is unauthentic, since it bears internal marks of having had the origin which is asserted for it.

M. Clery's *Journal of Occurrences at the Temple, during the Confinement of Louis XVI.*, was reported at some length in our xxvith Vol. N. S. p. 410.; and the work of M. Hue on the *Latter Years of the Reign and Life of Louis XVI.* was analyzed in Vol. liv. p. 72.

p. 72. After the details which were given in those publications, and in the Abbé Edgeworth's Memoirs, amply reviewed in our last Number, we do not find very material additions to the knowlege which we already possessed on the affecting subject of them all: but the present memoirs are continued to a later period, in some respects supply information which was before wanted, and afford an additional evidence of the pious resignation, fortitude, and tender attachment of the unfortunate Louis and his family. With respect to the Dauphin, too, though M. Hue had sufficiently refuted the reports that this young Prince had died by poison, and on the other hand that he was still living, we have here some farther particulars of the savage-like treatment to which he was subjected.

The Dauphin was removed from his family by a decree of the Convention, and placed with Simon a shoe-maker. 'He ill-treated the child beyond all belief, and the more so because the poor boy cried at being separated from his family: at last he had overcome him to such a point of dread, that he did not *dare to weep*.' After the separation of the Queen from Madame Elizabeth and Madame Royale, (the writer of these memoirs,) they 'heard of the Dauphin from the municipal officers. That, however, did not last; but they heard him every day singing the *Carmagnole*, Marseillais songs, and such trash, with Simon. Simon dressed him in a red hat, and a carmagnole. He made him sing at the windows, that the guard might hear him; and he taught him the most horrid oaths and execrations against God, his own family, and the aristocrats.' —

'Towards the end of August, 1793, the change of life, and the ill usage with which he was overwhelmed, made him sick. Simon obliged him to eat to excess, and to drink large quantities of wine, though the child disliked that liquor. This diet soon brought on a fever; for which they gave him physic, which disagreed with him, and his constitution became altogether deranged. He grew extremely fat, without increasing in height or strength. Simon, however, still made him take the air on the leads of the tower.'—

'On the 19th of January, 1794, the Princesses heard a great noise in the Dauphin's apartment, and guessed he was going to be removed from the Temple: they were convinced of this, when, looking through the key-hole, they saw several parcels carried away. On the subsequent days they heard the doors open, and the sound of footsteps in the room; satisfied, therefore, that the Dauphin was gone, they believed that some person of importance had been placed in his apartment. It was Simon who was gone: obliged to choose between the situations of municipal officer and guardian of the Dauphin, he had preferred the former, and they had had the cruelty to leave the poor child absolutely alone. Unheard-of and unexampled barbarity! to leave an unhappy and sickly infant, of eight years old, in a great room, locked and bolted in, with no other resource than a broken bell, which he never rang, so greatly did he dread the people whom its sound would have brought to him; he preferred wanting any thing, and every thing, to calling for his persecutors. His bed had not been stirred for six months, and he had not strength to make it himself — it was alive with bugs, and vermin still more disgusting. His linen and his person were covered with them. For more than a year he had had no change of shirt or stockings; every kind of filth was allowed to accumulate about him, and in his room; and, during all that period, nothing of that kind had been removed. His window which was locked as well as grated, was never opened; and the infectious smell of this horrid room was so dreadful, that no one could bear it for a moment. He might, indeed, have washed himself, for he had a pitcher of water, and have kept himself somewhat more clean than he did; but, overwhelmed by the ill treatment he had received, he had not resolution to do so, and his illness began to deprive him of even the necessary strength. He never asked for any thing, so great was his dread of Simon and his other keepers. He passed his days without any kind of occupation. They did not even allow him light in the evening. This situation affected his mind as well as his body, and it is not surprising that he should have fallen into a frightful atrophy. The length of time which he resisted this persecution proves how good his constitution must have originally been.'

After the fall of Robespierre, the Convention appointed Laurent to take the care of Madame Royale and the Dauphin, and sent a deputation to ascertain the situation of the latter.

'The members were struck with pity at the state in which they found him, and directed that he should be better treated. Laurent got him a clean bed, the old one being filled with bugs and vermin: he made him bathe himself, and cleansed him from the filth with which he was covered. However, they still left him alone.' —

'In the beginning of November, certain civil commissioners came. They were men chosen, one from each section, to pass twenty-four hours in the Temple, to ascertain the existence of the Dauphin. Another commissioner also, called Gomier, came to assist Laurent. He took extraordinary care of the young king. For a great while, this child had had no light. Gomier obtained leave to give him a candle at night-fall; he even used to pass several hours with him, to amuse him. Gomier soon saw that his wrists and knees were swelled; he was afraid the joints were about to grow callous. He mentioned it to the committee, and asked permission to take him to exercise in the garden. At first, he only removed him to the little parlour, which delighted the child, who was fond of a change of place. He soon felt the attentions of Gomier, and became fond of him: the poor boy had been long unaccustomed to kindness. There is no example of such studied barbarity to a child.' —

'During the winter, the Dauphin had some attacks of fever. He could not be kept away from the fire. Laurent and Gomier used to coax him up to the leads to take the air, but he was hardly there when he complained of not being able to walk, and wished to go down again: he grew worse, and his knees swelled greatly.

'Laurent was now removed; but a worthy man of the name of Loine took his place, and, with Gomier, attended the child. In the beginning of spring they persuaded Madame Royale to go up to the leads, which she did. The illness of her brother grew worse every day; his strength diminished; his mind even was affected by the severity he had suffered so long.

'The Committee of Public Safety sent Dessault, a surgeon, to attend him: he promised to cure him, though he admitted the disease was very dangerous. Dessault died, and Messrs. Dumangin and Pelletan were appointed to succeed him. They had from the beginning no hope; they gave him, however, some medicines, which he swallowed with great difficulty. He fortunately did not suffer much. It was rather a wasting away than a positive pain. He had several alarming crises. The fever increased, his strength diminished, and he expired without pain.

'Thus died, on the 9th of June, 1795, at three o'clock in the afternoon, Louis XVII., ten years and two months old. Even his keepers wept for him, so much had his amiable qualities endeared him to them. He had had great talents. He was not poisoned, as some have believed. The only poison that shortened his days was filth, made more fatal by horrible treatment, by harshness and cruelty, of which there is no example. *'

The translator has properly given this journal without alteration, and with the closest fidelity of rendering. Whoever he may be, he is not only a zealous Anti-Jacobin, but apparently as warm an Ultra-Royalist as France itself can produce. See, for example, his note in page 10.

Art. 23. *Essays, Religious and Moral.* 12mo. pp. 274. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

This volume is the work of a sensible writer, and of one who occasionally displays an original vein of thinking: but things often thought and often said constitute the mass of the publication. It will *remind* more than it will *inform* among that limited number of readers whom so uninviting a title can expect to command. *We*, indeed, are far from regarding such a title as uninviting, but we speak of the taste and habits of the generality; and among persons of that description, perhaps, we are not wrong in assigning a small circulation to these religious and moral essays. Instances occur of truisms, or even of identical propositions, expressed in set and solemn phrase, which accord ill with the usual tone of the composition; — yet it must be confessed that too great an air of importance is throughout attached to discoveries of a very common kind. To use a vulgar, but expressive mode of speech, the author often looks as if he had found "*a mare's nest*," when he has by no means hit on so curious a production. Still we are not disposed to accuse him of many such pompous nothings as the following:

'* Here end *our* (*sic. in orig.*) Memoirs. Madame Royale remained in the Temple six months after the death of her brother, and left it on the 19th of December, 1795, the seventeenth anniversary of her birth. M. Hue, in his work, relates what passed on this occasion, and whatever information he could collect relative to the last months of the Princess's confinement.'

lowing:—'The civil historian *cannot* recover records consigned to *everlasting* oblivion; nor *can* the naturalist extend his inquiries beyond the *power* of his miscroscope or telescope,' &c. Page 5.

At the commencement of the thirteenth essay, we find some remarks which, though they contain little that is novel, recall to the minds of the reflecting several practical truths, by attending to which we may all be the wiser and the happier. The subject of the essay is 'the Propriety of discussing religious and political Subjects.' We accord with the greater part of the observations contained in it; and, particularly in these times of censure, reproach, and insult, showered without discrimination, justice, or mercy, on public men of all parties, we approve the caution and the reluctance here inculcated. A political creed (to say nothing of religion) is too sacred, in our judgment, to be exposed to the cavils of the ignorant, or to the abuse of the uncharitable.

In taking leave of this writer, we wish him too well not to recommend to him a little more simplicity of language, when treating of matters perfectly within the reach of the plainest understanding.

CORRESPONDENCE.

G. P.'s letter is received, but we cannot at present attend to it, on account of the absence of one of our corps.

A *Constant Reader* will be considered.

We are not surprized at an *Old Whig*'s solicitude to see an account of Lord Erskine's late publication; and we are glad to have it in our power to afford him that gratification in this Number.

Since our preceding sheet was printed, Messrs. Sherwood and Co. have advertized that they will sell no more copies of the drama of *Wat Tyler*, (see p. 313.) 'in deference to the Lord Chancellor's opinion of its mischievous tendency.'

GENERAL INDEX.

In answer to the numerous inquiries and applications which have been made to us, respecting a new GENERAL INDEX, we have now to announce that this undertaking, comprizing the whole of the New Series of the Monthly Review, to the end of the year 1816, is in considerable forwardness, and will probably be put to the press in the ensuing month. The plan of the former General Index will be observed: but some improvements will be adopted, and greater copiousness of reference be introduced, in the way of duplication, so as to render less likely any failure of search. It is calculated to form two very large volumes in octavo.

⁂ As this work is of a very expensive nature, Gentlemen who intend to be purchasers of it are requested to give their orders to their respective booksellers, or to our publisher, without delay, that some idea may be formed with regard to the number of copies that may be wanted. Many more than the demand is likely to require will not be printed, and the volumes can never again go to the press. The price, it is supposed, will be two guineas, which must be raised to non-subscribers, after the 1st of June next, to two guineas and a half.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1817.

Art. I. *Travels of Ali Bey*, in Morocco, Tripoli, Cyprus, Egypt, Arabia, Syria, and Turkey, between the Years 1803 and 1807. Written by himself, and illustrated by Maps and numerous Plates. 4to. 2 Vols. 6l. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

We have here one of the most singular productions that has for some time been presented to the English public; a work composed in the name of a 'Mussulman, a descendant of the illustrious family of the Abassides,' the original of which is in French, and is supported by a fictitious account of his birth and family. The publishers on our side of the Channel, however, have determined, prudently in our opinion, to cast off a part of the veil, and to represent Ali Bey as no other than a Spaniard travelling in the guise of a Mohammedan; who was personally known, they add, to Sir Joseph Banks, Major Rennell, and other English literati, having visited this country in 1802 and 1814; and who still continues to correspond with several of our men of science. As a farther proof of the authenticity of the production, they quote a passage from a letter of M. de Chateaubriand, who met Ali Bey at Alexandria; and who, in his usual style of amplification, describes this traveller as "*le Turc le plus savant et le plus poli qui soit au monde.*"

To these circumstances, communicated in the preface, we are enabled to add a few particulars from intelligence which has reached us. We understand that Ali Bey's real name is Badia y Leblich; that he is a Spaniard, born in 1766; that he was educated at the university of Valencia; that, having acquired the Arabic language and familiarized himself with Mussulman usages, he undertook the journey now described in 1802, with the tacit sanction of the Spanish government; and that, as it is said, he obtained from Godoy, who was then all-powerful at that court, and who was so long known to the world by the unmerited title of Prince of the Peace, an engagement for an annuity to his wife and daughter in return for the public benefit that might be expected from this expedition.

Fortified by this important preliminary, and provided with the necessary stock of money, presents, and other means of travelling, Ali Bey (as we shall continue to call him) set out from the southern coast of Spain in June 1803. His peregrinations occupied between four and five years, and embraced so wide a tract of country, comparatively little known, that we shall be more than usually copious in our report of them. The leading outlines of the book may be collected from the following divisions:

I. Residence in the Morocco-dominions during two Years.

II. Voyage to Egypt, and Journey across that Country to Suez.

III. Pilgrimage to Mecca.

IV. Return by the Way of Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Asia-Minor, and Constantinople.

Previously to the commencement of his journey to these regions of barbarism and superstition, the author had not only adopted the dress and appearance necessary for the support of his assumed character, but also underwent a painful operation, in order more effectually to escape detection and to prove his adherence to the rites of Islamism. Any person travelling under the disguise of a Mohammedan, who neglected this precaution, would find it impossible to maintain that denomination; since not only are questions repeatedly asked on this subject, but the frequent necessity of bathing and of ablutions would facilitate the discovery, if suspicion were once roused; and we may add that it is far from improbable that Horneman perished from not having submitted to take this essential preliminary. — Assuming the Mussulman from the outset, Ali Bey begins with an invocation in Arabic, the first words of which may be translated, " Praise to God, the mightiest, the immense." He proceeds to mention his passage across the straits of Gibraltar to Tangier, where he arrived on the following morning, and found himself in as different a world as if he had traversed a thousand miles of European ground.

' *Tangier*, viewed from the sea-side, presents a pretty regular aspect. Its amphitheatrical situation; its whitened houses; those of the Consuls, which are regularly built; the walls surrounding the town; the *alcassába*, or the castle, built on a hill; and the bay, which is sufficiently spacious, and surrounded by hills, compose an interesting view; but as soon as we approach the inside of the town the illusion ceases, and we find ourselves surrounded with every thing that characterizes the most disgusting wretchedness.

'Except the principal street, which is rather large, and which from the gate on the sea crosses the town in an irregular manner from east to west, all the other streets are so crooked and narrow, that scarcely three persons can pass along them in a line. The houses are so low, that one may reach the tops of most of them with the hand. The roofs are all flat, and covered with plaster. Few of the houses have high tops. The dwellings of the Consuls have decent windows; but in those of the inhabitants we only see a few, not above a foot square in size, or some loop-holes, an inch or two in width, and a foot high. In some parts the principal street is badly paved; the rest is abandoned to simple nature, with enormous rocks, which they have not even taken the pains to smooth.

'The walls which surround the town are in a state of total decay. They have both round and square towers; and on the land-side they are surrounded by a large ditch, which is also in ruins. Trees are planted on its sides; and it is bordered with kitchen-gardens.'

Such is the present condition of a sea-port which was vaunted as so important an acquisition on the marriage of our Charles II. to a princess of Portugal, but which that sovereign found it expedient to relinquish towards the close of his reign; not from a conviction of the impolicy of a distant possession, but from the more direct reason of a deficiency of pecuniary means. It is amusing to observe the summary manner of administering justice in this part of the world; for it is a fact that no sooner is sentence pronounced than both plaintiff and defendant are literally drubbed out of court; a treatment which, whatever might be our indignation at the moment, is tender mercy compared to the endless delay of an English Chancery-suit. — Tangier has the advantage of good water, with an abundant supply of fruit, bread, and other provisions. The great article of diet, both here and in other parts of the continent of Africa, is *Couscoussou*, of which the traveller gives this account:

'The principal food of the inhabitants of all the kingdom of Morocco consists of a sort of paste called *couscoussou;* it is made only of flour and water, kneaded to a hard paste, which is divided into small pieces of a cylindrical form as big as a finger; these are afterwards reduced to grains, by slicing them, and by dividing them dexterously with the hands; they are then spread upon a napkin, and exposed to the sun or to the open air to be hardened. To boil this couscoussou, it is put with butter in a kind of pot, whose bottom is full of small holes. This pot is placed over a larger one, which the poor fill with water only, but the better sort add some meat and poultry. This double pot being placed before the fire, the steam which ascends from the lower one enters through the holes of the upper, and boils the couscoussou above. If there be meat in the lower pot, it is served up on a plate, surrounded and covered with the couscoussou, which forms thus a sort of pyramid, without any gravy or soup; the grains of the couscoussou are loose, and do not adhere: they are made of all sizes, from the smallness of oatmeal to the size of grains of rice. I look upon this dish as the best possible food for the people, for besides the advantage of being easily procured and conveyed, it is also very nourishing, wholesome, and agreeable.'

Though this is the manner of preparing the dish according to the most refined mode of African cookery, the lower orders are obliged to have recourse to a simpler process, and make it by pouring a little water into a vessel that contains a small quantity of flour, shaking the whole gently; after which, the water sticks to the flour, and forms a number of globules or small balls. They then proceed to take out these globules, and repeat the operation till the whole of the flour is thus absorbed, when they complete the dish in the manner described in the extract. Along the coast of Guinea, the couscoussou is made of pounded millet, and dressed either in the steam of meat and poultry or with a strong soup composed of fish; pieces of boiled fish are then added, and constitute a dish which would not be spurned at our best European tables.

The Jews are found in considerable number in the Moorish dominions, and are the principal artisans at Tangier, though they appear to be still as badly treated there as in former ages.

'The Jews in Morocco are in the most abject state of slavery; but at Tangier it is remarkable that they live intermingled with the Moors, without having any separate quarter, which is the case in all other places where the Mahometan religion prevails.'—'When they meet a Mussulman of high rank, they are obliged to turn away hastily to a certain distance on the left of the road, to leave their sandals on the ground several paces off, and to put themselves into a most humble posture, their body entirely bent forward, till the Mussulman has passed to a great distance; if they hesitate to do this, or to dismount from their horse when they meet a Mahometan, they are severely punished. I have often been obliged to restrain my soldiers or servants from beating these poor wretches, when they were not active enough in placing themselves in the humble attitude prescribed on them by the Mahometan tyranny.

'Notwithstanding these inconveniencies, the Jews carry on a considerable trade at Morocco, and have even several times farmed the custom-house; but it happens almost always that in the end they are plundered by the Moors, or by the government.'—

'The Jewesses are in general pretty, and some of them even very handsome; it happens very often that they become the mistresses of the Moors, and this contributes sometimes to the diminution of the hostility of the two hostile sects: these women in general have a beautiful complexion. The Moorish women are generally of a dead white, like marble statues, either from their sedentary life, or because, being always shut up, or closely wrapped when they walk out, their faces are scarcely ever exposed to the open air.'—

'Morocco is said to contain about two thousand Jews, who all live in their quarter, and, of whatever age or sex they be, they dare not come into the town unless bare foot. They are treated with the utmost contempt. Their dress is black and shabby, such as the Jews of Tangier. Their chief seems to be a good kind of man, he often came to me and was as miserably dressed as all the rest. Among the women of this religion who go into the streets with unveiled faces, I have seen some that were handsome, and even of great beauty. Most of them are of a fair complexion. Their rose and jasmin faces would charm Europeans; their delicate features are very expressive, and their eyes enchanting. These perfect beauties, worthy to serve as models to a Grecian sculptor, are treated with disdain, and, like all the others, obliged to walk bare foot, and to prostrate themselves before ugly negro women who live with the Mussulmen. The male infants of the Jews are also handsome, but as they grow up they get common, and the Jews of a certain age are all ugly. It is possible that the shocking slavery in which they live may cause this change in their countenances.

'The Jews exercise several arts and professions. They are the only goldsmiths, tinmen, and taylors that are at Morocco. The Moors are the shoemakers, carpenters, masons, smiths, and Hhaïk weavers.'

Ali Bey had soon an opportunity of being introduced to Muley Soliman, the Emperor or Sultan of Morocco; who happened to come to Tangier shortly after the arrival of the traveller. No sooner had he offered the customary presents than he was very kindly received, the Sultan condescending to make him read aloud to him, and even to correct his pronunciation of Arabic. A farther acquaintance led Ali Bey to shew his *camera obscura* to his Moorish majesty, and to the observation of two eclipses both foretold by Ali Bey; the result of all which was that, besides other presents, the Sultan gave him a large estate, of which we have not only a very prolix description but views and plans of the buildings belonging to it.

'The Sultan, *Muley Soliman*, appeared to be about forty years old; he is tall and lusty; his countenance has the expression of kindness; it was rather handsome, and not too brown; it was distinguished by large and lively eyes. He spoke fast, and comprehended quickly. His dress was very simple, not to say plain, for he was always wrapt up in a coarse Hhaïk; his gait was easy. He is Fakih or Doctor in Law, and his education is entirely Mussulman. His court has no splendour. During all the time of his stay at Tangier he was always encamped to the west of the town in tents,

placed

placed without any order; those of the Sultan were in the centre of a large and vacant space, surrounded with a parapet of painted cloth, representing a wall. In Muley Abdelmelek's tent, which was very ample, there was no other furniture than two mattrasses, a large carpet, and a silver candlestick, with a lighted wax candle. Round each tent the horses and mules of its proprietor were fastened, and in the whole camp I saw only two camels. Notwithstanding the confusion and disorder of this camp, I calculated that it contained about six thousand men.'

The traveller's chief patron at the Moorish court was Muley Adsulem, the Sultan's brother, the same whom Mr. Lempriere attended, and who made him so deficient a return for his services. In the work before us, he is described as generous and benevolent; a contrast of character for which we can account only by the altered tone which the same man is capable of assuming to a Christian and a Mohammedan.

Fez is the most populous city in the dominions of Morocco, and was computed by Mr. Jackson, whose work we noticed some years ago, (M. R. Vol. lx.) to contain 380,000 inhabitants; a number which is cut down at once to the half by Ali Bey, and which is stated, since a late visitation of the plague, to amount to only 100,000. Were we to express an opinion, we should say that they in all probability never exceeded the last-mentioned amount; and that all statistical calculations under the Turkish or Moorish government are matters of mere conjecture, there being no public documents to correct the natural propensity to exaggeration. The streets of this antient city are dark and narrow; the houses high, and built, as in the rest of Morocco, chiefly of earth previously cut into squares, and stamped in wooden frames for the purpose. The principal public building is the mosque called El-Caroubin, which is large, and, for a Moorish structure, of considerable elegance; and it has a covered place for such women as may chuse to participate in the public prayers; a circumstance, says this traveller, that is '*unique*, and peculiar to this building.' Indeed, as the prophet has assigned no place in his paradise to this sex, it seems but just that they should be exempted from the obligation of frequenting public prayers. — This mosque has also a library, but it was in vain that Ali Bey searched there for the last Decades of Livy; and, had such a work ever been contained within its walls, it must long ago have been devoured by vermin, or have crumbled into dust. The shops and markets of Fez are tolerably supplied, and, as a river runs past the city, water is so abundant that almost every house has its fountain.

The credulity of the people of Morocco is singularly exemplified by the following anecdote of an occurrence at Fez:

'The

'The baths are all the day open to the public. The men go there in the morning, and the women in the evening. I went there generally at night and took the whole house to myself, in order to prevent interruption from strangers; some friend and two of my servants usually accompanied me. The first time I went there, I observed that pails full of hot water were placed with symmetry in the corners of every room and cabinet. I asked the reason of this. "Do not touch them, Sir," answered all the people belonging to the bath; "do not touch them!" — Why not? — "These pails are for the people below."—Who are they?—"The demons who come here to bathe themselves at night."'

A suitable counterpart took place some time afterward in the same city, (which we are to observe, *en passant*, contains the Sorbonne, or great theological school for the Morocco dominions,) subsequently to Ali Bey's prediction of an eclipse of the sun and of the moon.

'The eclipse of the moon was little seen by the people, as the sky was covered with clouds; but what a frightful clamour was caused by the eclipse of the sun! The sky was perfectly clear, and the sun became dark in the middle of the day, and to such a degree, that hardly half an inch of the disc remained uncovered. The people ran through the streets, stunning the air with cries like madmen. The roofs and terraces of the houses were covered with people, and finally my house was so crowded, that from the door to the top of the house not a single spot was free.

'The eclipse disappeared a little after noon. When I was at dinner the son of the Kadi came to speak to me, and with tears in his eyes, and a most piteous voice, told me that he had been sent by his father, who having lost the use of his limbs could not come himself, in order to enquire whether any thing else was to be feared, now that God had permitted them to get fafe through the eclipse.* I cheered the mind of this young man as well as I was able, and he retired at last easy and satisfied.

'It is impossible to convince these people that a man may know how to calculate astronomical events without being an astrologer or a prophet. I met every day with some people, who desired me to tell them their fortune, or to enable them to recover lost or stolen things; others wanted me to cure diſeases, and some were modest enough to request only my prayers, or a small keep-sake.'

Ali Bey appears to have had with him a considerable stock of mathematical instruments, an electrical apparatus, and the *camera obscura* already mentioned. These accompaniments, desirable as they are on many accounts, should be produced with caution, since they have more than once proved fatal to European travellers, not as temptations to robbery, but from

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'* An eclipse is looked upon in this country as a great misfortune.'

the inconceivable jealousy and ignorance of the natives. Du Roule, the envoy from France to Abyssinia, was furnished with an apparatus of this kind by the advice of De Maillet, the French consul at Cairo; and the possession of these instruments was the principal cause of the tragical end of him and his suite at Sennaar. Every appearance of knowlege above the comprehension of the illiterate natives subjects a traveller to suspicion and difficulty; and even Ali Bey, believed as he was to be a Mohammedan, found it often necessary to desist from measuring public buildings, and is thus prevented from answering for the accuracy of several of the plans that are engraved for his work. Had he persisted in taking the necessary measurement, he might have been suspected not of political treason but of magic, or of the project of discovering subterraneous treasures; notions which, however absurd, will cease to surprize us when we recall to mind the superstition of our own ancestors a few centuries ago, and the still existing credulity of many of our fellow-subjects in the sister-island, where it is not unusual for the lower orders to speak of Dean Swift as a great magician.

Of all professions in the empire of Morocco, the most advantageous seems to be that of a *Saint*, which procures not only respect but wealth and power, if we may judge from the ensuing description.

'The two greatest saints of all the empire of Morocco are *Sidi Ali Benhamét*, who resides at *Wazein*, and *Sidi Alarbi Benmâte*, who lives at *Tedla*.

'These two saints decide almost on the fate of the whole empire, as it is supposed that they attract the blessings of heaven on the country. The departments which they inhabit have no Pasha, no Kaïd or Governor of the Sultan; the inhabitants of them pay no kind of tribute, and are entirely ruled by those two saints under a kind of theocracy. The veneration which they enjoy is so great, that upon occasions where they visit the provinces, the Governors take their orders and advice. They preach submission to the Sultan, domestic peace, and the practice of virtue. They receive considerable presents and alms, and there is not a woman in the empire that would not seek an occasion to consult them when they come within reach. Upon such religious excursions, they are followed by a crowd of poor who sing the praises of Allah and of all holy personages. A number of armed men are continually in their retinue, and ready to defend the divine cause with their weapons.

'I have already mentioned that this holiness is hereditary in some families: the father of Sidi Ali was a great saint; Sidi Ali is now as much venerated, and his son Sidi Bentzami begins already to become so. As the productive power is the gift of heaven, these saints enjoy it in a most distinguished manner, for Sidi Ali keeps a number of negro women, and has a great many children. Besides his lawful wives and his common concubines, Sidi Alarbi keeps eighteen young negro girls.

'I had once the honour of an interview with Sidi Ali when he came to Morocco; he quieted some scruples in my too delicate conscience. I made him a little present of about fifty pounds, and he returned me a lion's skin, on which he had been in the habit of saying his prayers for thirteen years.—

'Sidi Ali was about fifty years old. He had a round ruddy coloured face, lively eyes, and a small beard white as snow; he was of a low stature, full and well proportioned. His dress was always the same; it consisted of a kind of shirt or small white woollen caftan, a little turban, and a sort of Hhaïk or light woollen cloth, which covered his head and hung down behind and on the sides like a small cloak.'

Leaving Fez, to proceed to the city of Morocco, the traveller passed through the sea-port of Rabat, now a small town, but formerly of considerable importance, having been the destined capital of the celebrated El-Mansur, known in our histories by the name of Almanzor. Even now the houses are better built, and on the whole of better appearance, than those of most towns in this very backward and uncivilized country. One of the mosques contains the tomb of El-Mansur, and is situated amid beautiful scenery.

'The descent of the hill, at the foot of which this mosque is situated, is really romantic, from numerous cascades of bright water precipitating itself between rocks, amid rose-bushes, orange and lemon trees, and numberless aromatick flowers. After I left the mosque I took a walk in the orange-gardens which border the river; they may with truth be called an earthly paradise. The trees, always covered with blossom and fruit, afford a delightful fragrance, and the most delicate refreshment, which, being within reach, may be enjoyed on the spot. These orange-trees are so thick, so large, and so tufted, that walking under them even in the middle of the day, they afford shelter against the effects of the sun, and I have found no where in Europe any gardens which have afforded me so much delight as those of Rabat.'

What a contrast does this smiling picture of verdure exhibit to the sandy plain in the neighbourhood of Mogador!

'The sandy plain into which we had come may with truth be called a little *Sahara;* the wind is there of a surprizing rapidity, and the sand so extremely fine, that it forms on the ground some waves, which look like those of the sea. These waves rise up so fast, that in a very few hours a hill of about 20 to 30 feet high is transported from one place to another. I never thought it possible, and did not believe it till I was convinced of it by my own eyes. This transportation of these hills, however, does not take place all of a sudden, as is generally believed, and it is by no means capable of surprizing and burying a caravan which is on the march. It is easy to describe the manner in which this transposition of the hills takes place: the wind sweeping continually from the surface the sand with an astonishing rapidity, the surface of the ground lowers every moment; but the quantity of sand in the air increasing as quickly by successive waves, cannot support itself there, but falls in heaps, and forms a new hill, and the place which it occupied before is level, and looks as if it had been swept. It is necessary to guard the eyes and mouth against the quantity of sand which is always flying about in the air.—

'The immensity, the swiftness, and the everlasting motion of these waves disturb the sight both of men and beasts, so that they are almost continually marching as if in the dark. The camel gives here a proof of his great superiority; his long neck, perpendicularly erected, removes his head from the ground and from the thick part of the waves; his eyes are well defended by thick eye-lids, largely provided with hair, and which he keeps half shut; the construction of his feet, broad and cushion-like, prevents his treading deep into the sand; his long legs enable him to pass the same space with only half the number of steps of any other animal, and therefore with less fatigue. These advantages give him a solid and easy gait on a ground where all other animals walk with slow, short, and uncertain steps, and in a tottering manner.'

Morocco, or as the Moors call it Marrâksh, the antient capital of the empire, is now reduced from a considerable population to the limited number of 30,000 persons. Without paying attention to the tradition which carries the computation of the inhabitants in former ages to several hundred thousand, a traveller has still the evidence of its pristine superiority in the extent of the walls, which must have occupied a circuit of seven miles, now covered with ruins or converted into gardens. Nearly all the houses are built for defence, and the one which was allotted to Ali Bey looked more like a fortified castle than the dwelling of a pacific inhabitant. Each house has a court-yard, with galleries or corridors all round, containing a number of long and narrow rooms; the mosques are very numerous, and several of them have considerable elegance of appearance. A large space is occupied by the palace, its gardens, its double mosque, and its square for the public audience of the Sultan; the circumference of the whole being not less than three miles. This city seems still to be on the decline, and will, in all probability, dwindle ere long into insignificance.

'The town of Morocco was formerly surrounded with gardens and plantations, which extended to a great distance. In order to water these gardens, the water was conducted from many thousands of fountains, which had their sources in the mountains of the Atlas, by conduits or open rivulets, or by some subterraneous aqueducts. Of all these vast works there are nothing but ruins to be seen, and it is painful to observe the destruction of these numerous canals and the deserts which are now replacing a former fertile and productive ground. There are, however, still some conduits remaining, which provide the necessary water, and furnish several gardens. The aqueduct which carries the water to Semelalia is so large, that when I ordered it to be cleaned the men walked in it to a great distance. This water is excellent.'—

'The provisions are still cheaper at Morocco than at Tangier. This unfortunate town, partly destroyed by wars and partly by the plague, is without any trade. Arts and sciences are entirely out of the question, as there is hardly a school of any note. It would be impossible to believe such an astonishing and rapid decline, if it were not proved by its large walls, its immense masses of ruins, the great number of conduits become useless, and its vast church-yards.'

Among other acts of munificence, the Sultan made Ali Bey a present of two females, the one fair, the other of the African dye; though the traveller persisted long in declining to receive them, and did not acquiese till after repeated solicitation from his patron, Muley Adsulem. Even then he did not visit them till the eve of his departure from Morocco; when, with a most lamentable want of gallantry, he proposed to them coolly the alternative of remaining where they were, or of travelling with him. How these ladies should, after such repeated marks of indifference, have decided for the latter, we must confess ourselves unable to explain: but it does not appear that they accompanied their new master beyond the Moorish dominions, since he embarked, as we shall see presently, without any suite.

The Emperor appears (p. 170.) to have spared no pains to prevail on Ali Bey to take up his definitive abode in the Moorish dominions; and his brother Muley Adsulem joined in the same intreaty: but, when they found their guest inflexible, they forbore to take his determination in bad part, and even made fresh additions to their presents. On passing the desert on the way to Larisch, the port of embarkation, he was in the most imminent danger of perishing, with all his attendants, in consequence of their having neglected to supply themselves with water previously to their entering on this dreary tract. Fortunately, however, the alarm of an attack from an imaginary enemy had induced the persons composing a large caravan to turn aside from their intended route, and to direct their steps to the spot on which Ali Bey and his companions were extended senseless and expiring on the ground. Relief being thus unexpectedly and critically obtained, Ali Bey was enabled to proceed, and arrived at his port of embarkation. Here it was that he first had reason to complain of the Moorish government. He had intended to take shipping at Tangier, but was conducted by the Sultan's orders to Larisch or Laraisch, a small sea-port on the north-west coast of the empire, where he was received by the Pacha with respect, but separated from his suite at the moment of embarking, and obliged to proceed to sea alone. This mortification had a great effect on his spirits, and gives rise to the most vehement complaints; for which, after all, we can see no great foundation, although certainly a mysterious contrast is evident between the former overflow of kindness from the Sultan and his peremptory orders at the time of departure.

Observations on Morocco. — The revenue of the Emperor of Morocco is computed (p. 175.) at a million sterling, though we much question whether half the sum finds its way into the imperial treasury, the Moors being, to all appearance, as far behind-hand in finance as in tactics. In the latter, they have one uniform plan, viz. that of riding up till within two or three hundred yards of the enemy, when they fire off their musquets, stop their horses, and gallop away with great speed; after which, when beyond the reach of the enemy's fire, they load and return to the charge. If the enemy gives way, or exhibits signs of fear, they venture to push forwards, but, if attacked, man to man, with the sabre, we may safely consider their resistance as likely to be very short, since they are obliged to hold both bridle and gun in one hand, if they use the sword with the other. The latter they avoid to the last moment, preferring to rely on the swiftness of the attack and retreat, and on a dexterous use of the musquet.

It is a curious fact that tea has superseded coffee in certain parts of Africa; and the present traveller asserts that more tea is used in Morocco by some classes of the population than even in England: it is taken at all hours of the day, very strong, without milk, but by no means without sugar, which, as well as the tea, is imported from England by way of Gibraltar.

With regard to *climate*, the vicinity of the immense ridge of Atlas has the effect of moderating the heat in Morocco; of which the temperature, warm as it is, will appear from the subsequent extract to be considerably lower than we should expect in lat. 32° or 33°.

'Middle of May, the pomegranate-trees were in full blossom.

'End of May, apricots were in abundance.

'Towards the end of June, the fig-season began, and lasted to the middle of August.

'In July, we had quantities of melons and water-melons.

'In May, the date and olive trees were in full blossom.

'Towards the end of August, the first dates of Taffilet were to be seen.

'In the middle of August, the market-places were stocked with enormous quantities of grapes.

'In June and July, the pompions, pimento, and other vegetables were abundant.

'In the month of May, they cropped barley.

'In June and July, wheat.'

It is now time to say a few words on the relative merits of Ali Bey and of those who preceded him in a survey of the Moorish and Arabian territories. Of these precursors, Windhus, Lancelot Addison, and Shaw, occur more immediately to our recollection; and when we consider that they visited Morocco openly in the character of Christians, and found their career of observation frequently checked by the suspicion of the natives, we must be slow in assigning to the present author a superiority over them and their successors, Lempriere and Jackson. Travellers of so remote a date as the first mentioned are necessarily inferior in point of style to those of the present day, but their narratives display a fund of anecdote and an appearance of candour which still give them a title to attentive consideration. These remarks are applicable also to Pitts, who was an involuntary renegado, and who supplies a good though now forgotten account of the ceremonies of Mecca; and we would gladly extend the encomium to Pellow, who, though accused of borrowing occasionally from Windhus and Addison, is in our opinion still intitled to attention, his narrative being for the most part a faithful record of all that he saw and experienced. While, therefore, we admit that the work before us contains no inconsiderable stock of information about Morocco, we cannot help adding that it by no means supersedes previous performances, and that it even does not fulfil our expectations from a traveller who was admitted to an unreserved observation of the usages of the country, and was exempt from the various disadvantages of his predecessors.

Discoveries in the Interior of Africa. — This subject is often mentioned by Ali Bey in the course of his first volume, and seems to have occupied his imagination so strongly that we regret that he did not attempt a journey to the almost unknown region of Tombuctoo, instead of a pilgrimage in the comparatively well ascertained track of Mecca. With the advantages which he possessed in a knowlege of the language, in familiarity with the local customs, and, above all, in passing for a *bonâ fide* Mohammedan, the enterprize would have been divested of half its danger, while it would have afforded him a much stronger basis of reputation with the public. Instead of the satisfactory result of personal observation with regard to the interior of Africa, we are presented with nothing but indistinct and uncertain rumours, of which a specimen will be found in the following paragraphs:

'A Talbe of the name of *Sidi-Amkeshet* paid me one day a visit, and as we were accidentally conversing on the interior of Africa, he addressed to me the following discourse:

'"Frequently caravans set out from the provinces of Sus and Tafilet, and cross the Great Desert in about two months, to go to *Ghana* and *Tombouctou*.

'"There are, in the interior of Africa, two rivers, which both have the name of Nile; the one passes Cairo and Alexandria, the other takes its direction to *Tombouctou*.

'"These two rivers issue from a lake in the mountains of the Moon (Djebel Kamar). The river which goes to Tombouctou does not reach the sea, *but loses itself in another lake*. The mountains of the Moon derive their name from the circumstance, that at every lunation they take successively the colours of a crown or of a lunary rain-bow.

'"Travelling from Morocco to the shores of the Nile of Tombouctou is as safe as in the middle of a town, even though you should be loaded with gold; but on the other side of the river there is no justice nor safety, because it is inhabited by nations of very different character. This river contains the fierce animals called *Tzemsah*, which devour men."

'He pointed out with his hand the direction of the courses of these two Niles; "that of Cairo," said he, "runs towards the East;" and the other, of Tombouctou, replied I, does that run towards the West? "Yes, Seignior," said he immediately, "towards the West."

'How is it possible to reconcile so great a contradiction? All that I heard, proved to me that the trade between the southern countries of Morocco and Tombouctou is very active and continual; it is, therefore, impossible that these people should be mistaken or uncertain about the course of the *Nile of Tombouctou*, as thousands of the inhabitants of Morocco are perpetually seeing it. They all say that this river runs towards the West; at the same time Mungo Park assures us that he saw it flowing towards the East. What must we conclude? Giving to Mungo Park all the credit which he deserves, we must say that there passes to Tombouctou, towards the West, another river, which as yet we do not know, and which these people confound with the great western Nile, or Joliba, discovered by Mungo Park, who indeed declares that this river does not pass actually by Tombouctou.'

In a subsequent part of the volume (chapter 19.), we are entertained with a fanciful dissertation on the position of the antient Atlantis, and with the new theory of a Mediterranean sea in the interior of Africa. The former is altogether undeserving of notice, but in support of the latter we have the relation received by Ali Bey from a fellow-passenger in the vessel from Larisch to Tripoli, who had resided several years in a mercantile capacity in the city which at present excites so strongly the curiosity of our countrymen. *

'" Tombut is a large town, very trading, and inhabited by Moors and Negroes.

'" The reigning family at Tombut is descended from an Emperor of Morocco, who had made an excursion into that country; and whose name is very much respected there.

'" Buhlal enjoyed far more liberty at Tombut than at Morocco. He kept a great number of negro women, whom he took, turned off, or exchanged to his liking and whims; his constitution had suffered somewhat, and he had now and then caught several diseases.

'" Tombut is at the same distance from the Nile-Abid (or the Nile of the Negroes or Niger) as Fez is from Wad Sebu; that is to say, about three English miles.

'" This river flows towards the east.

'" The Nile-Abid is very large; every year in the rainy season it passes over its bed and inundates the country like the Nile in Egypt, and appears then like an arm of the sea.

'" The Negroes navigate this river in barks of a very singular construction; they are made without the aid of any nail, and only joined with small cords of the palm-tree.

'" Each of these barks is capable of transporting the weight of five hundred burthens of a camel, either in salt, corn, or other provisions.

'" These barks are steered without sails and without oars. In order to keep them a-going, several men, proportionate in number to the size of a bark, sit down on the two sides of the forepart, and putting a long pole to the ground of the river in order to push off in one jerk, make the bark advance. This manner of navigating being still in the state of its first childhood, obliged them to keep close to the shore.

'" The Nile-Abid takes its direction towards the interior part of Africa, where it forms a vast sea which has no communication with other seas. In this sea the barks of the negroes navigate forty-eight days from one shore to the other, and always without being able to perceive the opposite coast.

'" The most common objects of trade on this sea are salt and corn, as the interior part contains some very populous countries which are deficient in these articles.

'" It is said that this sea is in connexion with the Nile of Egypt; but nothing positive can be ascertained in favour of this supposition.

'" It is also said, that Houssa, to the east of Tombut, is a very large, populous, and civilized city."

'Buhlal, in giving me the above information, spoke Arabic to me, and always made use of the word *Bahar*. I asked him to explain to me the sense in which he was taking this word. He told me several times that he meant a sea of several days' voyage across, either in its length or its breadth, and resembling that on which we then were navigating (this was the Mediterranean).

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* The reader may compare these passages with the account extracted from the Narrative of Robert Adams, the shipwrecked sailor, in our Number for January last.

'This information removes all doubts on the existence of an interior or African Caspian-sea, which Buhlal was always calling Bahar Sudan or Nigritian Sea; and this fact the reader will remark corresponds with the reasoning which I had made on physical calculations. If objections should be yet started to the opinion, I must leave it to future travellers to give the answer.*'

Tripoli. — Ali Bey is certainly a very fortunate traveller, since, according to his own account, he succeeds in captivating the esteem of all whom he visits. The people, whether in Morocco, Barbary, or Arabia, run out in crowds to welcome him; and the Pacha of Tripoli, though assailed by some unfavourable representations from a concealed quarter, received him with open arms.

'Tripoli in Barbary is named by the natives *Tarables*. This town is much handsomer than any in the kingdom of Morocco. It is situated on the sea-shore, and its streets are straight and pretty large.

'Its houses are regular, well built, and are almost all of a dazzling white; the architecture approaches more to the European than the Arabian style; the gates are generally in the Tuscan style. The stone columns, and the arches of the courts, are of a round form, whereas those of Morocco are pointed. It is very common to see stone buildings; and even marble is employed for the construction of the courts, gates, stairs, and mosques. The houses have windows towards the streets, which is not the case at Morocco, but they are always shut with very close blinds.'—

'There are neither springs nor rivers in Tripoli. The inhabitants are obliged to drink rain water, which they preserve in cisterns, attached to every house; for their baths, ablutions, and other uses, they employ brackish water, which they take from wells.

'* Some years after Ali Bey had made his researches on the interior sea of Africa, Mr. Jackson, British Vice-Consul in Mogador, published that the inhabitants of Tombuctu had told him, that "at a distance of fifteen days' journey east of this place there was a vast lake called Bahar Sudan, or Sea of Sudan;" but he does not give any other information of this sea, having confined his researches only to the inhabitants of the coasts. We are disposed to believe that these researches are more exact than those which he has made on the kingdom of Morocco. There is a striking coincidence in the locality which he gives to this sea. He states it to be fifteen days' journey east of Tombuctu, that is to say, a little more than two hundred miles, which, being about fifteen miles a day of a camel's marching, corresponds exactly with Ali Bey's calculation. — Note of the Parisian Editor.'

'The plague has much diminished the population of Tripoli, and has often carried off whole families. There are still some houses which have been abandoned, or destroyed on account of this scourge.

'The whole number of the inhabitants may be estimated at about twelve or fifteen thousand souls; the population consists of Moors, Turks, and Jews. —

'Society is much more free and easy than at Morocco. The European Consuls came often to pay me visits, and no body cared about it. European renegadoes are advanced to places, and may obtain the highest rank. The Admiral or Chief of the whole Tripolitan marine is an English renegado, who has married a relation of the Pasha's. The Christian slaves are well treated; they are permitted to serve any body, on condition of giving part of the profits to Government.'

From Tripoli, the traveller embarked for Alexandria, but was driven by contrary winds and the ignorance of the master of the ship first to the coast of the Morea and eventually to Cyprus, where he landed and passed a couple of months. This time was employed in a survey of the relics of antiquity throughout the island, and, by reviving the classical recollections of the reader, affords a very pleasing episode in a long description of the monotonous characteristics of Moors and Arabs.

Cyprus, and the antient Cythera. — The spots celebrated in poetry as the resort of the goddess of Love, such as the vale of Cythera and the Idalian groves, will scarcely be found, on an actual visit, to answer the expectation of the enraptured readers of these romantic descriptions. It has long been remarked that a certain degree of distance and obscurity is necessary to the object of poetic delineation, whether it relates to local imagery or to historical narrative:—hence the predilection for the days of Agamemnon, for the exploits of Hercules, and the still more mysterious tradition of the Argonautic expedition; and hence also the exalted descriptions of the grandeur of Thebes in Egypt, the beauty of the vale of Tempé, and the vaunted charms of the regions to which we are now about to allude. We are far, however, from casting, like the merciless Bryant, the veil of doubt over the whole of these delightful recollections; since, wherever the investigation of travellers has led to an actual survey of a celebrated spot, it has proved the existence of a certain measure of truth in the classical records of antiquity. Of this fact we shall soon have occasion to give our readers a pleasing proof with regard to the vale of Tempé; a portion of which, when visited in spring or in summer, is described by Dr. Clarke in the fourth volume of his travels as replete with beautiful scenery. Cythera, in like manner, must have possessed considerable attraction in the better days of Greece, as it is still a verdant spot of three miles in length and two in breadth, watered by two rivulets rising from five copious fountains at the extremity of the vale, and capable of distributing a supply of water over almost the whole surface. Mulberry-trees, olives, and various vegetables, are spread over this little tract; which, if not particularly fertile or picturesque, possesses a strong local attraction from the drought and barrenness of the adjacent hills. The water, having here so short a course from its source, is light and transparent, and in summer extremely cool. At some distance, on a very high situation, are the remains of what is called the Queen's Palace, a ruin of considerable extent and antiquity, and which appears never to have been described by a classical traveller. We shall therefore await the conjectures of some future investigator among our countrymen regarding its probable origin; Ali Bey being quite a Frenchman in these matters, and either converting at once all the circumstances observed by him to a favourite theory, or divesting himself of the trouble of research *in toto*, by declaring them to belong to a 'date prior to the existence of history.'

Idalia is now a deserted village, situated in a valley surrounded by barren hills, with nothing to indicate its former verdure and freshness except a few trees and gardens. Another disappointment, equally grievous to the traveller, was the decay of beauty among the females of this once famed region. Still, however, he pursued his researches with unabated perseverance, until he reached the site of Paphos, where, if the country did not excite admiration, his curiosity was rewarded by discoveries of another kind.

> 'In approaching the ancient Paphos, I perceived nothing but some detached and isolated rocks in the plain; but what was my surprise, when, upon examining them, I discovered that the inside of each was excavated with the greatest regularity, and that they formed habitable houses; my astonishment encreased, when I found under ground the image of a tower, entirely hollowed in the rock. The ceilings of the apartments in these subterranean houses were hewn in low vaults, but there were some that were not arched: the walls well polished, perpendicular, and at right angles. Some of these edifices have the appearance of a palace, with courts, galleries, columns, pilasters, and all the elegance of architectural ornaments that can be imagined. The whole glitters with the same beauty as gilding, the polish being completely perfect, notwithstanding such a great lapse of time. When this effort of man is considered, it produces a feeling of veneration for the constructors of a system of works, which appears antecedent to books and medals of the highest antiquity. The rock, in which the edi-

fices are, is composed of a yellowish white calcareous sandy stone, with a small grain, forming oblique horizontal layers.

'In one of the excavations some columns are broken, and the capitals remain fixed to the architrave, because they form one body with the cornice. It is a surprising spectacle.

'The vast extent of these ruins gives birth to the idea that many interesting objects might be found, if well directed researches were undertaken, as at Herculaneum and Pompeii. The antiquity of these two latter cities is not so great as that of ancient Paphos.

'The tradition that this place and Ieroschipos were the abode of Aphroditis, or Venus, is too well founded to be shaken by doubt; and these vast caverns support the idea of the mysterious initiations of the goddess.'

Ali Bey cannot take leave of this subject without founding on it a theory of the existence of a Venus or potent female sovereign in former ages, who must have been a different personage from the goddess of love. This is too visionary; and we turn with some impatience to the part of the chapter that treats of the actual condition of the Greek population of Cyprus. Its amount is computed at nearly 100,000 persons, who are said to enjoy a greater share of freedom than most of their brethren under the Turkish yoke. Their ecclesiastical head is altogether independent of the archbishop or patriarch of Constantinople, and possesses a respectable income, with considerable influence among his flock. — From Cyprus, Ali Bey proceeded to Alexandria, where he remained, partly for the sake of his health, but more on account of the season, during five months. In the autumn (1806) he proceeded up the Nile to Cairo, and in his report of that capital expresses himself in terms much less unfavourable than the majority of travellers; alleging that many of the inconveniences stated by Europeans are owing to their pertinaciously retaining the dress of their country, and neglecting to conform to the habits of those among whom they resided.

'Several Christian travellers have represented the streets of Cairo as being extremely dirty, and of a dull appearance. I can certify that I have seen few cities in Europe whose streets were cleaner. The ground is extremely soft, without stones, and appears like a watered walk. If there are some streets narrow, there is a much greater number broad, although all of them appear narrower than they really are, on account of the projection of the first floors over the streets, as at Alexandria, which advance so far, that in some narrow streets they are only a few inches distant from the houses in front of them. Notwithstanding, this form of the streets, in a country so hot, is very agreeable.

'Far

'Far from the streets of Cairo exhibiting a dull appearance, they present as gay and agreeable a view as those of the large cities of Europe, on account of the number of shops and warehouses, and the immense multitude of people who parade them at every moment. The quarter of the Franks, or Europeans, situated in a hollow, is solitary, and separated from the great commerce, which may have given rise to this description. I do not deny that the abode of the Europeans at Cairo is disagreeable to them, shut up as they are in their quarter, and obstinately persevering in preserving the costume and the manners of their country. When they go out the natives stare at them; and they walk as if they were scared. Can the Arabs be reproached for this conduct, when at London, the civilized English may be seen doing the same thing, and insulting the poor stranger who may present himself in a coat two fingers longer or shorter than their own?

'It is said that the summer is very hot at Cairo; but the heat ought to be very temperate, on account of the form of the streets and houses. The roofs of the rooms have very large apertures, to produce a current of air. I found the autumn cool, and experienced even so sensible a cold, that I shivered as much as when I was at London at the same season. I had been already forewarned of the coolness of the nights in the desert; I therefore prepared myself accordingly.'

When treating of Alexandria and Cairo, the author takes occasion to call in question the accuracy of Mr. Brown, the traveller to Darfour, and concludes his remarks by saying, 'I would gladly think and hope that his travels into the interior of Africa do not contain the same inaccuracies which are apparent in regard to Egypt.' We are disposed, we confess, to join in these animadversions on the inaccuracy of Mr. Brown, who deserves the less indulgence from having shewn so great a disposition to search out and expose errors in his adventurous predecessor, Bruce. Recent visits, both to Abyssinia and Nubia, have tended to throw much additional light on the long disputed point whether Bruce's book did or did not deserve the public confidence; and the result is a confirmation of the opinion which we ventured to express in the outset, viz. that it contained no inconsiderable number of mistakes and exaggerations, without meriting the indiscriminate condemnation urged against it by several vehement critics, and still more without discovering the slightest intention of voluntary deception. This qualified censure appears to us confirmed by the admissions of that traveller's biographer, the late Mr. Murray (M. R. Vol. lx.); by the observations of Mr. Salt in his first visit to Abyssinia (M. R. Vol. lxii. p. 231.); and even by the second expedition of the latter, (M. R. lxxv. lxxvi.) though certainly not undertaken in a spirit of amity towards Bruce. When we find repeated misconceptions and even misrepresentations in the tours of those of our countrymen who visit France, we need not be surprized at the occurrence of a variety of similar errors in Bruce; particularly as his work was composed several years after he had completed his peregrinations, and, unfortunately, with too little reference to the dates and facts recorded in his journal.

We must now suspend the course of our observations on Ali Bey, having brought him to the conclusion of his first volume, and even entered on the second; and having a variety of matter in reserve relative to the latter, which contains his pilgrimage to Mecca, and his return by way of Cairo, Jerusalem, and Aleppo, to Constantinople.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *Moral Odes of Horace*, translated. Crown 8vo. pp. 56. 3s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1816.

Such is the internal evidence to be deduced from the tone and style of the author of this elegant little production, that we cannot hesitate in assigning it to the same hand which we have been pleased to recognize in several correct and scholarlike efforts. We will venture, then, to attribute the 'Moral Odes of Horace, translated,' to the author of "The Dissertation on Virgil's fourth Eclogue;" and to say that they add another flower to the classical garland which Mr. Penn has been patiently preparing for the recreation and the ornament of his maturer years.

In the 'Prefatory Remarks,' the author states that his design, in these extracts from Horace, 'was to endeavour to transmit to the English reader, with some little force and much fidelity, the *moral point* of the original poems, without any attempt to follow, much less to copy, the unattainable graces of their *poetry;* an attempt, which must ever be attended with the sure effect of enfeebling and blunting their moral force.' We cannot help thinking that this account is more modest than it needed to have been; and we are far from allowing that 'an attempt to follow the unattainable graces of the poetry' of these Odes 'must *ever* be attended with the sure effect of enfeebling and blunting their moral force.' Dryden and some few others, *in passages* of these Odes, have snatched all the grace as well as all the force of the original; and, with regard to the Satires and Epistles of Horace, Pope has, perhaps, at times even surpassed the elegance and propriety of his prototype. We would not, however, lose this opportunity of urging on our scholars and translators the expediency of filling up, with all due speed, that disgraceful chasm in our literature, which is occasioned by the want of a complete poetical version of Horace. That so many inferior writers have been adequately translated, while this prince of good sense, genuine poetry, and appropriate expression, even yet finds his best representative, on the whole, in Francis!! is a phænomenon neither pleasant nor flattering for the consideration of any Englishman of literary taste, in the nineteenth century. To proceed with Mr. Penn:

'In the Odes which are here assembled, Horace has, as it were, deposited those great and exalted principles, and those wise practical reflections, which he variously intersperses among his other Odes. In the latter we perceive, as the occasions prompted him, the patriot, the subject, the friend, the scholar, or the convivial companion; but in these, we see *the man*; we discern the native tone and texture of his thoughts, and the centre towards which they habitually gravitated, when he was left to himself, and was not called out to assume any of those particular characters. Without viewing these Odes in conjunction and continuity, we can hardly do justice to Horace's mind, or duly appreciate its moral quality. That the wit, the cheerfulness, the vivacity and various talent which he possessed, encouraged by the favour and admiration of his contemporaries, should have seduced him in his younger days into the lax notions of the Epicureans, is not surprising; but those qualities were amply counteracted, by a quick sensibility and decided devotion to the excellence of truth, wherever he could discern it; by a sagacity and alacrity of judgment, a *right-headedness*, equalled by few, and surpassed by none; by an innate rectitude of heart, and a lofty and independent spirit; and it was natural that these latter qualities should restrict him, by degrees, in his Epicurean latitude, in proportion as the experience of life supplied him with materials for their exercise. Accordingly, in the first of the following Odes, his ingenuous nature, forcibly excited to religious awe by some solemn public visitation, renounced, formally and openly, the presumptuous and impious schools of the Epicureans and sceptics; and the Odes which succeed, composed at different and distant intervals throughout his manhood, completely establish the earnestness and sincerity with which that renunciation was made.'

We cannot pursue the author into his refutation of the *arguments*, or rather the *assertions*, adduced by Dacier, to disprove the *sincerity* of Horace in the renunciation here mentioned. The ingenious, but far from judicious, French critic has taken a superficial view of the noble nature and disposition of the Roman poet. He has been unable to perceive through his convivial and voluptuous propensities, that fund of sterling sense and principle in which Horace certainly abounds; and which, with the aids of a better religion, have enabled so many later libertines to recover their lost character, and to become virtuous and honourable members of society. That this would have been the happier fate of Horace in another age, we have every right to indulge an idea: such as he was, we have still great reason to admire the resolution and the wisdom which mingled so much of good with the evil; and which, at all events, ought to set him far above the low suspicion of being ironical in his promises and professions of amendment. Still, differing as we do from Dacier, we cannot allow that Mr. Penn has quite established his *whole* argument. The sincerity of Horace in his *intended* reformation he has, we think, sufficiently proved, if, indeed, it required proof to a serious and candid examiner: but the final success of the well-meaning poet, his consistency and uniformity even of belief, and most certainly of practice, may be doubted. To omit other testimonies to the soundness of this opinion, — an opinion so likely to be true, and therefore coming to us recommended by attractions previous to its peculiar evidence, — we would call the attention of our readers and Mr. Penn to the first Epistle of Horace; written, as it appears by the commencement, in the most grave and confidential tone, to his friend Mæcenas. The passage to which we particularly allude begins at line 7.

> " *Est mihi purgatam crebrò qui personet aurem;*"

and goes down to line 27.

> " RESTAT *ut his ego me ipse regam solerque elementis.*"

Here this interesting poet, now advanced in age, in a manner which we do not perhaps exaggerate by calling it pathetic, deplores the delay, whether compulsory or voluntary, in his fixing on those studies and those rules of conduct which alone are useful to every age;

> " *Sic mihi tarda fluunt ingrataque tempora, quæ* spem
> Consiliumque morantur *agendi gnaviter*," &c.

and that these good purposes were still impeded, we see too plainly at the end of the passage, already quoted; *Restat*, &c. That his philosophical faith continued in this state of uncertainty, as well as his moral conduct,— that the whole man was yet at times wavering,— we have a strong proof in lines 18. and 19.

> " *Nunc in Aristippi furtim præcepta relabor,*
> *Et mihi res, non me rebus, submittere conor.*"

What these precepts of Aristippus were is too well known for the credit of Horace in still occasionally relapsing into them. Cicero will describe them in a few words: " *Aristippus*, quasi animum nullum habeamus, *ità corpus solum tuetur*." No:—

we fear that the creed of Horace cannot, even by so acute and able a reasoner as Mr. Penn, be placed on firm and lasting foundations; and those *Moral Oases*, which are scattered throughout his Odes, are rather to be viewed as the struggles of a noble mind for consistency, than as the testimonies of its having attained that perhaps inaccessible point, when considered with reference to heathen knowlege and heathen virtue. The fine lines of Claudian, descriptive of the vacillations of his faith, examined in conjunction with several of the contradictory passages in Cicero alone, would fairly represent the state in which the Pagan intellect seems to have been unhappily placed in relation to the most important of all subjects: — but we must abstain at present from such inquiries, and briefly express our difference in opinion with Mr. Penn. *He* considers the morality of Horace to shed a clear and steady light on his writings from the period on which he fixes for the poet's reformation: — we conceive the generous poet to have been yet too often bewildered and tost about in the ocean of darkness and corruption, while his bark was occasionally enlightened by his *good genius*; who strove to prevent the beacon-light on the shore from being wholly extinguished in the winds and waves that assailed it.

In the subjoined passage, we not only coincide with the author in sentiment, but we admire his mode of urging his sound and sensible opinions:

'The morality of Horace, like that of the other great and good minds of Heathen antiquity, is far from being unimportant or superfluous to the Christian world. It is eminently calculated "*to provoke it to emulation*." When we remark the sublimity and purity of moral principle to which their minds were able to attain, even under the inferior lights and sanctions which they could derive from their religion; and when we compare those lights and sanctions with the high privileges we enjoy in this particular; it is natural for *truth* and *ingenuousness* to inquire, whether we surpass those heathens in moral wisdom and energy, in any degree proportioned to the superiority of our religious advantages; whether, after we have read these poems of Horace, (for example,) we are conscious, that the moral tendency and elevation of our minds habitually transcend his, as much as we are *sure* our blessed religion transcends that which alone he had to guide him? If we should feel that this is not the case; if, on the contrary, we should be sensible that we are not even his equals, on the simple comparison of man with man, we then should fall much below our requisite standard; and the reflection would become most serious. For there is no maxim of eternal equity to which the mind yields a more ready and entire assent than this: "*Unto whomsoever much is given, of him shall be much required; and to whom men have committed much, of them they will ask the more.*"

'Horace has left us a picture of the social hours at his Sabine villa, which may well claim the attention of our own *polished, Christian* age.

" O, evenings, and meals divine!
When friends around my board recline;
And every guest is left at ease
To drink the portion he may please,
Exempt from rude, licentious force.
Then follows various discourse.
Not of our neighbours' fame we tell;—
If Lepos dances ill or well:—
But, points that to each bosom go,
And 'tis reproachful not to know.
If wealth, or virtue, best supply
The measure of felicity.
If friendship's choice shall better rest
On merit, or self-interest.
In what consists, best understood,
The nature of essential good;
And what the highest point, at which
That good essential we can reach," &c. *

'If, on the other hand, when we read the deplorable representation of the progress and effects of vice in Rome, we find some sentiments of exultation arising within us at the comparison we shall naturally make with our own country; if the plains of Victoria and of Waterloo convince us, that luxury has not yet enervated us, as it did the Romans of Horace's days; if we are sensible, that commerce has not yet spread depravity and corruption amongst us, in the same proportion as it has diffused wealth; and, if female virtue has not yet lost its high and just ascendant with us; let us question that exultation; let us, before we allow it to have its full course, ascertain the *real cause* of this diversity of effect under similar causes, and not lay ourselves open to the reproach of Arnobius to the Gentiles; "O INGRATUM SECULUM —O UNGRATEFUL AGE!" If similar causes have not produced similar effects, in our times and in those of Horace, there must be some *counteracting cause*, which *now exists* but which *then did not exist*, that resists those effects. That cause is not in ourselves, but in *Christianity;* the long established prevalence of whose divine morality has so interwoven it in public opinion and feeling, even where the combination is not immediately apparent, as to constitute a new and powerful dam against that easy irruption of depravity, which made its way through the population of Rome. It is, therefore, our business, not presumptuously to defy the causes, but gratefully to acknowledge, and carefully to maintain, that defence which protects us from their fury; since we have seen, in a neighbouring country, that the dam may be forced,

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'* Sat. 6. Lib. ii.'

and the inundation enter; and even amongst ourselves, examples are not wanting to show, that it may here and there be perforated.'

The lines translated from the sixth Satire of the second book of Horace we cannot consider as happily rendered. In the first place, the metre, — the every-day octosyllabic metre, which really now seems to be a sort of *universal quack medicine of versification*, — is wholly unworthy of Horace. Swift, we know, has given some happy imitations of the classics in this sort of easy rhyme: but he introduced a condensation and a vigorous simplicity in his style which made us insensible to other defects. As a general rule, it is clear that heroic Latin verse should be rendered into the corresponding English measure; and, perhaps, even the humbler lines of Horace, the *Sermones repentes per humum*, cannot be adequately represented in any other frame of verse. Indeed, we go farther; and we object (with very few exceptions) to this octosyllabic metre as the vehicle of translation from the Odes of Horace. Yet Mr. Penn has chosen it for the greater portion of his selection. The quick and uninterrupted recurrence of the rhymes in this measure; the little room that it allows "to turn round in it," as we may apply an expression of Dryden; and the great likelihood of a writer being induced, by the rapidity with which it occurs to any mind practised in composition, to adopt idle and ready modes of expression; —all these objections should be conclusive against using it, except in a few of the Asclepiad Odes of Horace. The "*curiosa felicitas*" of diction in this poet, if it can be imitated or preserved in a translation, must be so preserved by great care on the part of a writer originally adapted by nature for the task; and for this purpose surely a measure should be chosen which has some art and management in its construction: not such a measure as that which "many men, many women, and many children" of the day have proved that they can *whistle*, with a very sufficient degree of success and popularity.

We shall quote an Ode translated by Mr. Penn into a better sort of lyric measure than the one to which we have been objecting; — if, indeed, the epithet *lyric* can be applied in this manner.

' *To Manlius Torquatus. — On the Transitoriness of earthly Scenes.*

' The snows are fled; the trees and plain
Assume their leaves and flowers again,
And earth has changed her face;

The streams now glide within their bed,
The Nymphs now fill the dances, led
By each alternate Grace.

'Warned by the year, and fleeting hour,
Deem nothing lasting in thy power:
If wintery rigours bend
Beneath the vernal breeze, yet spring
Flies driven by the summer's wing,
And summer's self shall end;

'While autumn pours his liberal fruit,
Till winter hastening in pursuit
Reigns dreary as before:
And yet, the evils of the air
The changeful moon shall still repair,
And every loss restore.

'But we, when we are gone at last
Where Rome's illustrious sires are pass'd,
Shall be but shade and clay;
And even here, ah! who can know
If yet th' immortals will bestow
A morrow on to-day!

'The lands, that with benignant heart,
And all the wealth, thou shalt impart,
The creatures of thy care,
Though gladly gain'd, shall soon escape;
And fly, in many an altered shape,
From thy imprudent heir.

'TORQUATUS! when thou once art dead,
And awful Minos on thy head
Hath passed the certain doom;
The honours of thy earthly lot,
Thy virtues, shall avail thee not
Those honours to resume.

'Not e'en Diana could succeed,
Her chaste Hippolytus to lead
Back from the dark domain;
Nor yet could Theseus' daring hand
Pirithous rescue from the band
Of Lethe's stedfast chain.'

As we have bestowed so much space on the writer's 'Prefatory Remarks,' we must be contented with the above specimen from the poetical part of his little, indeed, his diminutive, publication, — ’Ολιγη λιβας, but assuredly, Πιδακος ἐξ ἱερης. We can now only afford leisure for a few brief notices of particular passages, and we must then reluctantly bid adieu to an author whom we yet hope to see again and again.

The passage in the first Ode of the third book,

> "*Est ut viro vir latius ordinet*
> *Arbusta sulcis*"—

has been differently interpreted by various critics. Mr. Penn thinks that the difficulty has arisen from understanding the passage *positively*, instead of *comparatively*: whereas it appears to be a *parabolical description* of the varieties in human life, which are afterward adduced in illustration. It can have no reference whatever to greater or smaller farms or estates, but only to the *greater or smaller distances* between trees standing in the same trench or furrow; which varieties served the poet for a comparison. The author quotes Columella, and some other writers, for an explanation of the allusion: but, if we are to acquiesce in his interpretation, we would suggest for the consideration of the scholar, whether it would not be better to place in a parenthesis the words *ut viro vir latius ordinet arbusta sulcis*, and to refer *est* to what follows; — construing thus: "It happens, or it may be, that one candidate descends to the contest, being of nobler birth than another; that another may be of better nature and character; that a third may have the largest crowd of dependants; (just such a difference as there is between the trees in orchards.") We are not sure that the criticism proposed by Mr. Penn, and which we have pursued, is on the whole thoroughly satisfactory: but we cannot employ any more time or thought on it.

In a note on the 18th Ode of the 2d book, Mr. Penn endeavours to prove that Horace, by the words "*ingenî benigna vena*," would intimate 'a benignant turn of mind,' rather than the "*largus et exundans ingenii fons*" of Juvenal: — but in his wish to adapt the "*publica vena*" of this last-mentioned author to his purpose, and to make that also signify "a turn of mind or thought," he fails, we apprehend, entirely, whatever he may do with Horace. With regard even to Horace, we are by no means satisfied that he is right; because the more obvious interpretation of the passage,

> "*Ego nec studium sine divite vená,*
> *Nec rude quid prosit video ingenium,*"

undoubtedly countenances the common meaning assigned to "*ingenî benigna vena.*" The instances from Cicero and Ovid are certainly happy: but we would have Mr. Penn beware (and we give the advice in the utmost sincerity of respect for his abilities) how he is betrayed into a Warburtonian licence of *systematic* conjecture.

Occasionally, we encounter some aukward, quaint, and cramped phrases and epithets in the translations.

> 'The *nubile* maid ——
> Soon shall her quick and *lascive* eye
> The objects of her shame descry. P. 34.
>
> 'Falernus' grape, nor Persia's nard,
> 'Gainst ill's terrific power can guard.' P. 28.

Often, indeed, this translator fails from a cause which is sufficiently unusual among his contemporaries; — we mean, his too great closeness of version. He must try to reconcile his fidelity with a little more freedom, if he means to succeed more completely with the antients. The spirit of liberty, which is the very essence of their genius, — for they inhaled that essence from Greece, and it was unconquerable, *as far as composition*, even by the flattery mixed with it in an Augustan court,—will admit of no brotherhood in a slavish imitation. "We lose their spirit" (we cannot too often quote this admirable remark from Dryden) "when we think to take their body; the grosser part remains with us; but the soul is flown away in some noble expression, or some delicate turn of words or thought." This is the advice which Mr. Penn should have engraved on his tablets of translation; he is in no danger of being beset by the sin of diffuseness; his thoughts will not *thaw* into a weak abundance of expression: but they are in some danger of being *frozen* into a form of too much density. "He bathes in Helicon," as we have heard it wittily said of a much more celebrated modern poet: but he often "catches the *cramp* at the first plunge."

ART. III. *Remains of William Reed*, late of Thornbury; including Rambles in Ireland; with other Compositions in Prose, his Correspondence, and Poetical Productions. To which is prefixed, a Memoir of his Life, by the Rev. John Evans, Author of The Ponderer. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Ogles and Co.

THIS volume is introduced by a Tributary Sonnet, signed T., of by far the most extraordinary versification in one passage that we ever encountered. It relates to the hero of this publication:

> —— 'To the light
> And busy throng, on whom a mental blight
> Ne'er fell, he, the departed friend, to enrol
> Whose humble name expands this votive scroll,
> Morose appear'd, a strange and wayward wight.'

'He, the departed friend,' who is so musically canonized in the preceding lines,

'William Reed, the subject of the following memoir, was born at Thornbury, a small town in Gloucestershire, on the 12th of September 1750. His paternal ancestors had lived during many generations in the village of Horton, about eight miles from the town; and there the descendants of the family still continue to reside. His mother's name was Price. Mr. Reed has given a short but interesting account of her family, in his Letters from Wales, which, from the object of his journey, he denominated 'The Welsh Estate.' His father, at the time of his marriage, worked at his business in Thornbury, as a journeyman-shoemaker; but as his wife possessed some property, he then embarked in trade as a master, and by his diligent attention to business, was enabled to bring up a family of several children, in comfort and respectability.

'It has frequently happened, that men of extraordinary abilities have been little distinguished in childhood, and even in youth have been principally remarkable for an aversion from study. Chatterton, to the disgrace of his teacher, was once pronounced to be incapable of improvement; and the school-boy days of Barrow were passed in pursuits which gave no promise that he would afterwards become the tutor and friend of Newton.

'According to the representation of those who observed his progress, the childhood and youth of Mr. Reed were marked by no peculiarity, except that his love of amusement was frequently carried to excess, and that his dislike to books sometimes induced him to become a truant from school. Probably, however, it was at this early period of his life that he acquired from these very wanderings his love for rural objects, and laid the foundation of that exquisite taste for the beauties of nature by which he was characterized, and which he has so poetically described:

'Oh! I have loved from earliest youth
To climb the mountain-tracts sublimely wild,
And range with keenest extacy of soul
Among the woody windings of the hills,
Whence o'er the distant precipice is heard
The sound of falling waters.

But the period was approaching when these delightful wanderings were to be relinquished for very different occupations.'

With the same disproportioned degree of importance with which the biographer of an obscure individual has informed us that he was an idle boy, the Memoir proceeds to state that 'it does not appear that William Reed sought a resource in books, or, like the *author of the Baviad and Mæviad*, consecrated to the cultivation of his intellect the hours which he could steal from business or from sleep. *The energy of Reed's mind* took another direction: in business, indolent and careless, he became fond of amusement, particularly of *fives playing*, in which he was so distinguished as to be considered without a rival for activity and skill' ! !! — This is admirable! Although no bees settled on his infant-lips, as on those of Plato; although he was dull as *Chatterton, and Barrow*, in his youth; although he was not so industrious, nor indeed *quite* so distinguished in any way as Mr. Gifford; yet he was — *a five's-player* of the first eminence! He was the very *quinquevir* of all his acquaintance. — We must leave our readers to pursue this *chef-d'œuvre* of biography; and must confine ourselves to some very detached facts relating to William Reed, and to some extracts from the miscellaneous collection of his Remains now before us.

It seems that this writer was the author of the 16th and 26th numbers of *The Ponderer*, a periodical work noticed in our Review for July 1813; and that an ample quotation was made from his first paper in our report. The principal portion of this posthumous volume consists of tours in Ireland and Wales, scattered remarks on popular subjects, and some very moderate verses. The prose, indeed, is throughout the best division of the work.

We are told that at one period of his life Mr. Reed had formed an attachment to a lady of very amiable character, and of considerable attainments; that his affection was returned; and that nothing but the interference of the lady's father prevented the union. To this event the editor ascribes much of the extreme melancholy *and extravagant gaiety* (a doctrine rather too commonly inculcated in the present day) of Mr. Reed's feelings, through the remainder of his life. A disappointment in love seems to be considered as a sort of *carte-blanche* for all future irregularities; and we cannot enumerate the interesting victims of this unhappiness, who have been forced (in a way, no doubt, contrary to all their natural propensities!) into a wandering and unsettled course, — into fox-hunting, fishing, or solitary reading, — into writing, small poems especially, — or into the most abominable drunkenness and debauchery, by this one cross accident: — an accident, indeed, which we cannot help suspecting to have been even courted, and certainly welcomed, on some occasions, in order to afford this scope for indulgent pity, this unbounded toleration for all the most wayward whims, or the most vicious excesses, that these injured sufferers may be disposed to entertain or to commit. If, in addition to that vagabond mode of life for which this affliction gives them a sort of *pass* or *furlough*, they do but cherish those additionally interesting feelings of misanthropy, and still more of misogyny, which have been so successful in frequent instances during the last half-century, they are set up for ever; and they may practise the trade of self-indulgences on an inexhaustible stock of credit, and with the most flattering support of public esteem and admiration.

We are far from attributing any *intention* to propagate such doctrines to the reverend author of this Memoir, or any such extravagant actions to the subject of his biography: but we do think that there is a degree of unconsciousness of the natural result of what is said on the cause of Mr. Reed's minor instances of unsteadiness, which, in these days of dangerous delusion on the subject of the passions, (delusion pervading the works of almost all our popular poets,) requires the moderate and friendly notice which we have been induced to take of the passage.

In an excursion to Scotland, we are informed, Mr. Reed was highly gratified; part of the journey was made by sea; and the traveller was regaled with the sight of Dr. Blair, and two large whales. It is added that 'whatever was awfully grand, or elegantly little,' would awaken his rapture, or excite his admiration. — At another period of his life, he planned a trip to Canada, lured by the love of visiting foreign lands, of gazing at and listening to the Falls of Niagara, of introducing vaccination among the Canadians, and "leading Sabrina's commutation cow" * up the St. Lawrence. — Here we find Mr. Reed 'mentioning his design of going to Canada, on a visit to his friend Mr. Rolph;' and, struck by the well-remembered name, we become anxious to discover whether this Mr. Rolph be in any degree the kinsman of that celebrated Rolph, concerning whom we read so much, as connected with the illustrious Princess Pocahontas, in Mr. Davies's Travels in America some years ago. If he be, we doubly regret the indisposition which prevented Mr. Reed's journey; because we might probably have heard from him more of our favourite hero and heroine, Rolph and Pocahontas, and of the Mocking Birds and Muckawiss, which enlivened the perambulations of the interesting traveller above mentioned.

We have little more to mention of Mr. Reed, but that he made an extempore prayer at a Baptist meeting, which was highly approved by all who heard it; that he devoted a considerable portion of his time, latterly, to the study and practice of vaccination; and that he died on the 30th of Sept. 1813. — We now turn to his works; and we shall first present our readers with an extract or two from the poetical division. As it seems to us, we cannot select a more satisfying specimen for their perusal than the ode to the memory of Mrs. Mary Wollstonecraft; which must be considered as peculiarly appropriate and judicious by all who recollect the history of its subject.

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* See the Pursuits of Literature.

> ' Where Wollstonecraft's cold relics lie,
>   May soft-wing'd breezes, passing by
> O'er death's low mansions fling around perfume!
>   May genius bend his honour'd head,
>   Respectful, o'er her narrow bed;
> And there the wild-flower smile in constant bloom.
>
> ' Vast was her energy of mind;
>   And few there be of woman-kind,
> In power of intellect with her could vie:
>   For her's was nature's sterling ore,
>   And fancy's fascinating lore,
> And boundless thought, that proudly soar'd on high.
>
> ' What boots it that her genius fired,
>   Or that philosophy acquired
> For her a seraph's praise, and wide renown?
>   She climb'd up wisdom's summit high,
>   But just to look around, and sigh,
> And meet despair, and feel misfortune's frown.
>
> ' Since then nor skill nor genius give
>   Their blest inheritor to live,
> Screen'd from the shafts that wound the feeling soul,
>   Mine be the virtuous maid sincere,
>   Who blithely fills an humble sphere,
> Though fame refuse her merits to enroll.'

We have already spoken of the prose of Mr. Reed as more worthy of the attention of any readers, of however idle a description. In the following passage, selected from the Tour in Ireland, they will find —— what we will not anticipate.

' When rambling through the solitudes of some of the more mountainous districts, I frequently experienced proofs of that wild eccentric kind of hospitality which seems to enter into the very essence of the Irish peasant's character. In travelling through Wales, if you meet a native of that country and ask him the way to any place, it is ten to one but you will receive some such mortifying answer as "Indeed, Sir! I don't know, indeed." Put the same question to a Scotsman, and he will tell you to "keep strate to the sooth, and turn round by the dyke," and so describe to you the whole of your route, with all the accuracy of a map-maker. But when you request the same favour of a poor Irishman, with no expectation of a reward, he will go along with you, and would almost part with his skin into the bargain, without ever troubling himself with the idea that he might want it the next day.

'The Irish cabin is a wretched habitation. It is built with sod, cemented with mud, and thatched with turf, the stalks of the potatoe, straw, or heath gathered from the mountains. It has generally neither window nor chimney, the door alone being made to answer both these purposes; and in this humble shed, the man, his wife and children, the hog, cow, goat, poultry, and other bog-trotters, all eat, drink and pig together with the greatest good humour imaginable. It is a model of the most perfect republic the world ever saw. Among its motley inmates no quarrel ever arises about precedence or quality: all are perfectly equal and at ease; and one would be almost tempted to believe that some of those patriotic enthusiasts, who figured away so brilliantly during the French Revolution, had studied politics and philosophy in the seminary of an Irish cabin.

'The Union is every where spoken against: the people say it has swindled them out of their independence, brought them none of the advantages which it promised, and relaxed the best energies and springs of the public mind, by withdrawing the nobility and gentry from Ireland; who, fascinated by the attractions of England, forget to return to their native country, which by their presence they should animate and improve.

'The Roman Catholic religion appearing to my imagination somewhat like a cabinet of natural curiosities, I wished to be better acquainted with its real character; but the people of whom I made enquiries, although they were sons of this infallible church, and in other respects intelligent enough, could give me no more information than the man in the moon. If I only put this simple question to them, "What is the reason for lighting up candles in the chapel when the sun shines?" the best answer I could procure was, "Indeed, Sir! it was always so;" or, "Mass cannot be said without them."

'On arriving in Dublin, I was desired to consult Dr. Betagh, who was said to be the most learned and best informed man in Ireland, and who added to these accomplishments an amenity of manners that was almost enchanting. Accordingly one morning I knocked at the door of this venerable monk, but could not have access to him then, as he was giving audience to two bishops. The next morning I found this ancient oracle alone; for he was more than fourscore years of age. Requesting to know my business, he desired me to draw my chair nearer the fire; and we soon entered into the depths of the most serious conversation. I questioned him on the subjects of purgatory, indulgencies, the use of holy-water, praying for the dead, transubstantiation, praying to the saints, and particularly the Virgin Mary, whom they call *the Mother of God.* On all these topics, and on many others which arose in our interview, I found him very eloquent. He defended every part of his system with an acuteness and force that astonished me. But notwithstanding his ingenuity and masterly address, I left his habitation a more inveterate Protestant than ever. His proofs of truths were derived from the usages of the church to which he belonged, and not from that better criterion, the steady illuminations of reason. On leaving this gentleman, who had received me with great politeness, I was determined to put his liberality to a trial, by saying, " Dr. Betagh! you have lived a great many years in the world, and have thought a great deal on the subject, no doubt; will you have the goodness to tell me, what is your opinion respecting the future state of the Protestants?" He shook his head, and pausing a moment, spoke as follows: " Why, to say they will be damned would be very harsh; although I cannot see how it is possible to be otherwise. There are some Protestants I may think favourably of: they are those who live in remote country-places, and who have no opportunity of coming at the truth. I place such on a level with the heathens, and they may fare as well."

' That a monk of the middle ages, constantly immersed in his cloister, should express a sentiment of this kind, would not have excited my surprize; but to hear Dr. Betagh, a man of learning and science, and mixing with the great and polite world every day, betray such a want of intellectual amelioration, almost confounded me. Surely wisdom must have harnessed her steeds and descended from heaven in vain, if men are too deaf or too infatuated to listen to the voices she has uttered from every part of the creation. Whilst in company with this grey-bearded father, I found that learning and liberality of sentiment were different things. The discovery was simple, and might easily have been made before. Roman Catholicism is Roman Catholicism in all ages. No time can soften its asperities. The great political revolutions and the wonderful improvements in science which are every day taking place, communicating a new pulse and figure to all human affairs, possess not the least power to cast a smile of charity upon the grim unbending physiognomy of this ecclesiastical system. ' It came from heaven,' say they, ' and is infallible; and to talk about mending what is infallible, and therefore perfect, is as foolish as the attempt to add new splendour and beauty to the firmament.'

If this portrait bears the lines of truth on one side of the question, what shall we say to the subjoined picture of the opposite extreme? How exactly do they meet in absurdity, although so thoroughly different in their mode of operation!—Every day do we wish more and more for a republication, *with additions*, of Bishop Lavington's " Enthusiasm of Methodists and Papists compared."—In his Tour in Wales, Mr. Reed encountered some " Jumpers," of whom he gives us this account.

' I now call your attention to a very singular people, of whose conduct I was anxious to be an observer—I mean the *Religious Jumpers*. In passing through Bridgend, we observed the people unusually in motion, and, asking the reason, were told that they were going to meeting. I enquired of a girl if they were Jumpers, and was answered in the negative. We had now reached the end of the town, when I put the same question to a woman, and her answer was yes; for she had seen the same congregation jumping at a neighbouring village in the morning; and she was herself, I believe, one of the society. I then said to my companion, who was unwilling to return, I will certainly see this extraordinary sight, now I am here. The woman then very boldly exclaimed, 'If curiosity, Sir, be your only motive, you had better pursue your journey; for if the Spirit of God does not work upon your heart, things may go ungainly with you; as it is exceedingly sinful to go for the sake of mocking.' I told the good woman that though I was solely actuated by curiosity, it was far from my intention to make a mockery of the matter; and so, after putting up our horses at the inn, we joined the congregation. They were assembled in a barn, which was very large and lofty, hung round with curtains of cob-web that depended from every part of the roof, to the very centre of the building; and so fantastically grotesque was the arrangement of this curious drapery, that it must have taken half a century at least for the spiders to complete so voluminous a production! I suppose there were not less than three hundred people assembled on this occasion, all remarkably attentive, and two ministers. The first who preached was a grey-headed venerable-looking man; and in delivering his discourse, he appeared highly animated. The other, named Ebenezer Morris, was much younger, possessing a coarse but strongly marked countenance. Nature had given this bold and impetuous orator a firm constitution and a wider mouth than falls to the lot of one in ten thousand. Taking advantage of these physical endowments, he would sometimes roar so tremendously, as almost to endanger the organization of the ear! The qualifications of this man for making a noise could not, I believe, have received any material improvement, had he imbibed the rudiments of his education at the mouth of a speaking-trumpet, or taken lessons from Stentor himself! Neither of them spoke a word in English. The congregation, during Mr. Morris's harangue, were in considerable agitation, but no jumping took place. The loud Amen! frequently reverberated from every part of the tabernacle; and one of the females now and then would throw her arm over the heads of the people and exclaim, *Gogoniant i Dduw!* that is, 'Glory to God.' At the close of the ministerial service, a hymn was given out, and the preachers immediately left the place, which I believe is the custom. The singing threw the congregation into a rocking attitude, which was soon followed by a scene of the wildest uproar and confusion. About thirty of the people, of both sexes, were engaged in these violent exercises. We stood upon a chair, and had a distinct view of the whole group; they were all intermixed and near together. Some were jumping and shouting; others, with their countenances most frightfully distorted, wrung their hands and cried in the most lamentable manner. They would then shake hands, fling their arms over each other's shoulders, and jump again till they became exhausted with fatigue. Some of the women were led away from the rest, completely worn out by their exertions. From the clamour it was almost impossible to distinguish any thing they said. Now and then we could hear such expressions as *Bendigedig fyddo Duw!* and *Dragywyddoldeb! O Dragywyddoldeb!* that is, 'Blessed be God!' and 'Eternity! O Eternity!' Being pretty well tired of the scene, we quitted these devout but obstreporous enthusiasts before their adorations were concluded, thinking them rather entitled to pity than censure. They certainly appeared more like the votaries of Bacchus, or some Hottentot divinity, than worshippers of the true God.'

We have allotted an ample space to the lucubrations of Mr. Reed, and must confess that we think that the subjects rather than the manner of treating them deserve such a distinction. We observe, however, a degree of good sense and a propriety of feeling in several of the above remarks; and, though possessing no claim to originality, they are such as it may benefit religious and reflecting men of all divisions or descriptions to "*lay to heart.*"

ART. IV. *Peninsular Sketches, during a recent Tour.* By John Milford, Jun. 8vo. pp. 228. 8s. Boards. Richardson. 1816.

WE have here the observations of a young traveller, whose first excursion, on leaving the University at the age of twenty-one, was directed to a country which has lately been the theatre of some of our most splendid military achievements. Mr. Milford's journey through Spain and Portugal was performed in 1812 and 1813, when the power of Bonaparte was still such as to restrain within narrow limits the range of the continental traveller. Proceeding by sea to Corunna, he remained for some time in that town, until a wish to learn the Spanish language, by withdrawing from all intercourse with our countrymen, induced him to remove to Ferrol. His progress there was in correspondence with his eagerness to make the acquisition, and with the attractive powers of a young instructress, of whom he speaks in those animated terms which never fail to mark his style when he expatiates on the merits of the fair half of the creation.

The first part of this small volume is occupied with accounts of Galicia, and particularly of the towns of Ferrol and Santiago, in both of which Mr. Milford found inducements to make a prolonged stay, and an opportunity of marking many peculiarities in the habits of the people.

'The general dress of the Spanish ladies is black; when walking, *al paseo*, their head is covered with a black, or occasionally a white veil, the *mantilla*, tastefully tied under the chin; this and their shoes are the only articles often varying in colour. This costume has certainly a *sombre* appearance, yet it is not unbecoming to the darkness of their complexions. These *señoritas* are upon a small scale, but their figures possess exact symmetry. They have good teeth, although they take no care of them; beautiful black eyes, piercing, and full of spirit; with remarkably small feet and ancles, which they take great pride in setting off to the best advantage; and indeed their whole dress, though not wanting in modesty, is admirably contrived to exhibit the beautiful symmetry which reigns beneath its folds.—

'The men of all classes are too often dirty in their persons, and always have a dark look; for besides wearing whiskers, and many of them mustachios, they neglect their beards to such a degree that half their faces are obscured.

'A Spaniard without a segar in his mouth is quite out of character. He smokes morning, noon, and night; uses great action in conversation, and, as well as the ladies, talks very fast. The dress of the higher orders here consists of a large cocked hat and dark-coloured cloak; the latter covers the whole of the body, and is so ample that any species of weapon can be concealed under it.'—

Credulity.—'I complained to my landlady one morning, of having been attacked by vermin in the night, which had so annoyed me that my eyes were almost closed by the swelling. The old woman asked my Christian name, and assuring me that she had an infallible specific, desired that I would submit myself to her management. She then burnt some herbs of St. John, my namesake, and directed the smoke to the part affected, fully convinced that no other herbs except those of St. John, whom she was pleased to denominate my saint, would be of any avail. Among many other superstitious practices, the lower orders of women constantly wear round their necks small bags, containing slips of paper with the hand-writing of one of their priests, by which means they think that all witches and devils will be kept away from them.'— 'They likewise cross their mouths whilst yawning, as many times as possible, the reason of which, they tell you with all their natural gravity, is *to prevent the devil from going down their throats.*'

After having acquired enough of the language to find his way through the country, Mr. M. travelled southward to Vigo; and, taking under his charge a near female relation, whom he had engaged to conduct to the British head-quarters, he proceeded first to Badajos, and afterward on the road to Madrid in the direction of Truxillo.

'The country, upon leaving Truxillo, is fine; and after passing through a large wood, the road enters the mountains, where many points of view are strikingly beautiful. Game of all kinds is very plentiful in this neighbourhood, which induced me frequently to proceed before the carriage with my dog and gun, to enjoy the amusement of shooting.

'Early one morning, on ascending a high hill, I saw six large wolves cross the road much nearer to me than I could have wished; and scarcely was I recovered from this alarm before I found myself

within

within fifteen yards of another, who was quietly seated behind the ruins of a house on the brow of the mountain. At first I took him for a large sheep dog, knowing that there were some in Spain of an immense size, especially as he continued stationary, very composedly looking towards me, without shewing any symptoms of fear; but on minute examination I soon found out my mistake, and immediately discharged one of my pistols at him, which, however, had no effect; and the shot could not be repeated, as he quickly fled and concealed himself amongst the rocks, howling as he went in the most terrific manner. This wolf was different from those I had seen just before, being of a lighter colour, with large black spots on his back and sides. In this day's ride I likewise saw some wild deer, which, as well as the wolves, are very abundant in these mountains.'

The journey was performed in June and July 1813: but, even with all the advantages of a favourable season, it was a matter of no little difficulty for our English travellers to accommodate themselves to the scanty fare and wretched lodging of the Spanish inns. They had the precaution to carry their own beds with them, but it seemed almost as necessary to bring with them a stock of portable soup, or other equally convenient *comestibles*, the dishes of our peninsular allies being extremely discordant with northern palates.

'The daily meal of the greater part of the lower orders of people consists of bread, boiled in an earthen jar; the water being drawn off, the bread is put into a wooden bowl, and placed on a stool; they then pour over it a quantity of *high flavoured* oil, taken from the lamp, and the whole family sit round with wooden spoons, and enjoy their temperate meal.'—

'The *posadas,* where we stopped, were usually wretched; children, swine, fowls, host and hostess, all mingled together in chaotic mass, in a house with half the tiles off its top, and the wind and rain penetrating in all directions. The sorry fare they afforded generally consisted only of *escabech,* (pickled fish,) swimming in rancid oil, and sausages, in which garlick was a chief ingredient. We sometimes met with eggs, which I considered a great treat.'—'At these *posadas* you must generally eat your dinner upon no other table than that which nature has given you, on your own knees, or sitting astride upon a bench. To the use of a candle or candlestick, in many parts, they are totally strangers; their common light being a kind of iron cup filled with oil.'

At Talavera, Mr. Milford made a point of visiting the spot on which our troops opposed so glorious a resistance to a superior enemy in 1809; and he still found, after a lapse of four years, several melancholy vestiges of slaughter on the field of battle. Talavera is a large town, distant twenty leagues from Madrid, and the traveller approaches that capital without discovering any symptoms of improvement in the inns or dwelling-houses.

It is only the superb bridge on the Manzanares that gives notice of the vicinity of a royal residence. The city of Madrid is in a form nearly circular, having a diameter of two English miles, with straight, wide, and well-paved streets. Its squares are not regular, but it is on the whole much superior to the traveller's expectations in a country of so little taste or industry, owing to its being comparatively a modern-built town, the court having been removed hither in the reign of Charles V., who was attracted to the place by the purity of the air and the excellent quality of the water. This, however, is but slender praise, in proportion to that which is bestowed on it by the Spaniards, in whose eyes Madrid is the finest city ever raised by the hand of man, and intitled to be called a *cielo* in competition with any other. Having remained sufficiently long to see its various attractions, Mr. M. and his fair companion left it to proceed northward on their journey, and stopped in their way at the Escurial, where they saw many traces of French plunder, and were soon afterward exposed to an adventure of a very perilous nature:

' At the town of *Olmedo*, fourteen leagues from the Escurial, I was informed that a gang of banditti had been following us, and making particular enquiries relative to the effective state of our guard. During our stay at Madrid, I was forewarned of the road not being altogether safe, and had fortunately applied to the governor, who provided us with six men and a corporal of cavalry, as an escort; and at Olmedo, by mere accident, we met with five infantry soldiers, on their way to head-quarters, who gladly joined our party; so we proceeded on our journey, as we thought, tolerably secure.

' The information given us proved, however, to be too correct; for before we had gone far, and as I was amusing myself by the side of the road with my dog and gun, I heard two of our dragoons, who were in advance, discharge their carbines; which was no sooner done than the banditti, who were concealed in one of the pine-groves bordering each side of the road, returned the fire. I arrived at the scene of action a few minutes after, and found the carriage stopped, and the robbers, who had left their concealment, drawn up in line on one side of the road, about twenty yards before us. They were eight in number, all mounted on fine horses, armed with muskets, swords, and pistols; and from the discipline they were under, I have no doubt but they formerly belonged to some part of the army. I looked in vain among them for a single *Gil Blas*, from whose freshman-like manner of levelling his musket, it might have been possible to derive some portion of hope or consolation. He who appeared to be their captain wore a splendid dress, and in his hat a rich plume of feathers. All their coats were of different colours, the spoils of the many officers they had plundered. Amongst them I observed an English uniform, which perhaps belonged to some poor countryman of ours, who had been sacrificed by these desperadoes. I never beheld men in whose countenances the villain was more strongly depicted; their mustachios and beards had grown to a great length, and their black eyes were sparkling with rage; for two of their party had been wounded by the shot of our dragoons, whilst their fire proved fatal to one of our horses only. The baggage was drawn up in front, and the captain continued vociferating to his men, "*Vamos al carro,*" — "All hands to the car:" he seemed likewise to have taken a great fancy to a fine white Portuguese horse which I rode, and desired me to deliver it up to him. This, however, was far from my intention, and I remained close to the carriage, with my pistols ready.

'Now, though such an adventure, when it is over, is a most desirable thing to all who travel, for the astonishment of their wondering friends at home, and though it certainly contains matter already which might be twisted into a good story of romance, yet as I had no *Wouwermans* at hand, whose pencil might do justice to my white charger, surrounded by this mustachioed group of appropriating heroes, nor did the patriotic idea of substituting my pen for his brush, to hand down the scene to posterity, then strike me, I did not feel that inclination, which I might otherwise have done, to challenge the plumed captain to single combat; neither to lead my own troops, and make a desperate charge; especially as amongst us all we could only muster three carbines and six cartridges: so, with a determined tone of voice, I contented myself with ordering the driver to proceed with the carriage to the small village of *Ornillos*, which was but a few hundred yards distant; leaving our escort in the position they had taken up, to keep the enemy in check, who, after reconnoitering us for the space of an hour, quietly returned to the wood. Had they known the ineffective state of our force, or attacked us on any former day, all the baggage, and probably some lives, would have been lost.

'Upon making out our returns, after the skirmish, we found that two of our servants, who had imprudently loitered in the rear on our departure from Olmedo, had been taken prisoners. One however made his escape to us, but the other remained captive, together with two horses. From the former we heard, that the banditti had treated him very well, and that, after quietly taking possession of one of the neighbouring villages, they sat down to a good supper, and passed the night in drinking. This part of his account strongly brought to my remembrance *Gil Blas'* adventure in the cave, with some gentry of a similar description.

'I must here take the liberty of paying my fair female charge a compliment which she truly deserves. Her behaviour during the whole of this romantic adventure was quite heroic, and notwithstanding the terrific appearance of this banditti, drawn up in line within a few yards of her carriage, she beheld the danger of her situation with the utmost resolution and firmness.'

Mr. Milford took very good care to remain in his quarters at Ornillos until he received an escort of thirty dragoons from the governor of Valladolid. The sequel of his journey to Bordeaux, Vittoria, and finally to St. Jean de Luz, presented nothing remarkable; and, having delivered his fair relative at her destination, he resumed his course to the west, and reached Portugal by Toro, Salamanca, and Ciudad Rodrigo, closing his peregrination by a visit to Lisbon and Oporto.

This tour exhibits a curious mixture of promising and defective features; containing in several passages observations which do credit to the capacity of so young a traveller, while in others (and we must confess by far the greater number) his pen stands evidently in need of the superintending eye of an experienced writer. What can be more quaint than to dedicate a book to 'the best emotions of the human heart,' by which the public are to understand the overflow of his filial affection? A number of passages also occur, (pp. 6. 22. 66. 133.) in which he allows himself to dwell on trifling circumstances, and not a few which betray unpardonable negligences both as to diction and as to matters of fact. We find in page 61. 'alone devoted,' in the sense of "exclusively devoted," and in p. 48. the elegant phrase of 'sometimes *of* an evening.' Again, the town opposite to Tuy, (p. 71.) on the Minho, is not Viana but Valença; and the river Bidassoa does not flow at the 'distance of half a league from the town of Irun,' but may be said to wash the lower part of its walls. A more remarkable error occurs with regard to literary history, in the passage (p. 16.) in which the author says, that 'since the time of Villegas, Lope de Vega and others have greatly enriched the dramatic writings of their country;' as if Lope de Vega had been posterior to Villegas, while the fact is that the former was born in 1562, and the latter only in 1595. We were likewise much disappointed at the meagre account of Coimbra, a city which is remarkable in various points of view, viz. for its university, its library, its halls, its museum, its lofty observatory, and the magnificent convent of Santa Cruz; all of which appear to have escaped the observations of the present traveller.— The book abounds in quotations, some of which are sufficiently apt and proper, while others partake of trifling or common-place: but, in passing sentence on this small volume, it is fit to keep in mind that its pretensions are very moderate, and that it is the effusion of a youth just escaped from the monotony of a college-life, who sets out by declaring (preface, pp. ii, iii.) that he makes no claim to the character of an antiquary, a tactician, or even a profound student of history.

ART. V. *Experiments and Observations on the Atomic Theory, and Electrical Phenomena.* By William Higgins, Esq. F.R.S. M.R.I.A. Prof. of Chemistry to the Dublin Society. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

FEW subjects have attracted more attention, among chemical philosophers, than what has been called the atomic theory of Mr. Dalton. It was at first received with considerable distrust, and met with much opposition: but, by degrees, as new facts in its favour have been gradually brought to light, it has continued to gain on the public opinion, and at present may rank among its supporters most of the first chemists of the age. Both its friends and its opponents, however, always agreed in one circumstance respecting it; that, whatever might be its merits or defects, they were due to Mr. Dalton alone, to whom its invention was unanimously attributed.

It was therefore with some degree of surprize that we observed a new claimant rise up, and assume to himself the priority of discovery; and not with respect to any single or detached parts of the system, but to the very foundation and basis on which the whole rests. This claimant is Mr. Higgins; who, so long as 26 years ago, published an essay on the controversy which then agitated the scientific world, respecting the existence of phlogiston; and in that essay, he now alleges, he brought forwards the doctrine in question, and employed it to substantiate his arguments. The advocates of the phlogistic and the antiphlogistic hypotheses had each advanced a variety of experiments in support of their respective opinions; in both cases displaying a certain degree of plausibility, but in neither being sufficiently decisive to produce conviction. On this account, Mr. Higgins attempted to solve the difficulty by a different method of proceeding, founded on certain notions of the manner in which bodies unite to each other. His work, as he informs us, was extensively circulated; and he even implies that it had an important effect in settling the controversy which was the immediate subject of it. On this point of fact we are not able to speak with absolute certainty, after so considerable a lapse of time: but we conceive that the author must have fallen into some misconception on the subject, and a misconception which is not only probable but perhaps venial. For nearly 20 years, we recollect to have seen but once a copy of Mr. Higgins's former work, and that was one which reposed on the dusty shelves of a public library; and we scarcely remember to have ever seen it quoted, or even mentioned: so that, whatever may be its real merits, from accident, or some other cause, it seems to have been overlooked and forgotten. Indeed, the author does not appear to have attached much importance to his own production, for we are not aware that he ever took any farther notice of it; or endeavoured to illustrate and enforce, by additional experiments and arguments, the important principles which it is supposed to contain.

The present volume consists chiefly of quotations from the former, in order to prove the right of prior discovery: but it likewise furnishes some new developement of the author's principles, and some correction of the estimates and calculations that have been formed by Mr. Dalton and his disciples. The principal point which Mr. Higgins claims, as having been fully stated in his former essay, is that bodies, when they enter into chemical combinations, unite particle by particle; that in course they can only form definite compounds, according to the number of particles of each of the constituents; and that the specific gravity of the particles, and the number of them, may be ascertained by the specific gravity of the compound, and the parts into which it is capable of being resolved. The bodies which were the particular objects of his former researches, or at least those to which he especially refers, are water, sulphuric acid, sulphurous acid, sulphuretted hydrogen, and the different compounds of oxygen and azote. Water, he supposed, must consist of one particle of oxygen united to one of hydrogen, because we can never procure any intermediate substance, nor form any other combination of oxygen and hydrogen than water. With respect to sulphurous acid, he had stated in his former essay "that two measures of sulphuric gas contain two measures of oxygen," and "that the number of the ultimate particles in sulphuretted hydrogen are to those of the hydrogen as 9 to 5." On this point he now observes:

> 'This was the first experiment of the kind made, and, had there been no other evidence brought forward, ought to be sufficient for the purpose, as it establishes three important facts which comprehend the whole of what has been unjustly called Dalton's Theory. 1. The proportion of the constituents of an atom of sulphurous gas, and the relative weight of those elementary principles. 2. The weight of the atom, and comparative diameter of its calorific atmosphere. And lastly, the proportion of the ultimate particles of hydrogen, and of sulphur, in sulphuretted hydrogen gas.'

Some experiments next follow on the union of oxygen and sulphur, from which Mr. H. concluded, 'that a particle of sulphur contains the same quantity of solid matter which a particle of oxygen does, and that a sulphurous atom consists *of a single* particle of oxygen, and a single particle of sulphur.'

Mr. Dalton supposes that this body is composed of two particles of oxygen and one of sulphur. Mr. Higgins conceives that we have no evidence of the existence of the oxyd of sulphur, which Mr. Dalton imagines to be the product of equal parts of the two substances.

Perhaps, however, the most important and curious experiments that are reported in this volume are those which relate to the combination of oxygen and azote. The subject is introduced by the following observation:

> 'Nitric acid was known to consist of azote and oxygen some time before I wrote my comparative view, and the volumes of the gases, which compose it, were ascertained by Lavoisier and myself; but its internal structure or disposition, or arrangement of its particles, was totally unknown until I had written on the subject. It is somewhat singular that no chemical writer has ever glanced at this circumstance, although it is twenty-four years since I published my book. This appears still the more extraordinary, as this kind of anatomy exhibited the most leading features of the atomic theory and definite proportions. Posterity, no doubt, will be surprized at this oversight, and will do my efforts that justice, which my contemporaries have withheld.'

It is stated in direct terms that there are four distinct compounds; nitrous gas, red nitrous acid, yellow nitrous acid, and the colourless acid, which consist of one particle of azote, united to 2, 3, 4, and 5 particles of oxygen respectively. These statements are made fully and explicitly, and are illustrated by diagrams, so as to prove that the author contemplated the mode of combination as well with respect to its principle as to its application in this particular instance. He afterward makes these remarks:

> ' "We can readily perceive from the foregoing demonstrations, that oxygen is retained with less force in the colourless nitrous acid than in the straw-coloured; and the latter acid retains it with less force than the red nitrous acid; and nitrous gas holds it still with more force than the red nitrous acid. This accounts for the separation of oxygen gas from the colourless nitrous acid (nitric acid) when exposed to the sun, at the same time that the acid becomes coloured. Nitrous acid, in any other state, will afford no oxygen when exposed to the sun." '

The two succeeding observations farther prove how near an approach Mr. Higgins had made to the modern doctrines:

> 'According to the philosophy which I laid down in my "Comparative View," and which I have proved to be correct in most instances, an ultimate particle of an inflammable base is capable of uniting to 1, 2, 3, 4, or more of the particles of oxygen, according to the nature of the inflammable substance; while, on the other hand, a single particle of oxygen, as I mentioned on a former occasion, cannot unite to more than one particle of any in-

flammable matter. To suppose the contrary, would be reversing that delightful symmetry which nature uniformly presents to our view on every occasion.'—

' 'In the section which relates to the precipitation of metals by each other, from their solution in acids, the structure of the compound molecules of the metallic salt is represented by diagrams; and the relative force, with which their elementary particles influence each other, is expressed by numbers.'

We apprehend that it will not be necessary to pursue our observations on the author's claims. We think it must appear that his former work displayed considerable ingenuity, and that he entertained certain opinions which, had they been more completely developed, would have led to the establishment of the modern theory. In some points, indeed, he approached so near the truth as to make it a little remarkable that he stopped short, and did not go a step farther; and we can only account for his doing this on the supposition that he was not aware of the importance of his own ideas, or of the consequences to which they would lead. We are of opinion, however, that he did not make the discovery to which he lays claim, notwithstanding the near resemblance which many of the quotations bear to Mr. Dalton's atomic theory. In order to judge on this point, we must take the whole of a work, and endeavour to place ourselves in the situation of a person who was reading it at the time at which it was written, not with a mind prepared for the investigation by a mass of knowlege which has been acquired from later sources. After Harvey had completed his discovery of the circulation, and had silenced the clamour which it excited, his adversaries began to find that the same doctrine had been already given to the world, even by antients: Priestley's discoveries on the gases were supposed, at one time, to have been entirely anticipated by Mayow; and, in short, a set of individuals exist who seem determined to take the assertion of Solomon in a literal sense, "that there is nothing new under the sun." On our view of the subject, we allow Mr. Higgins the merit of considerable ingenuity, for having written a work which contained some novel and important opinions respecting chemical science, and we are surprized that they made no more impression on the public mind: but, if we proceed on his own ground, and give him the honour of having made the full discovery of the atomic theory, we cannot acquit him of the greatest supineness and indifference to the cause of science, in permitting above twenty years to elapse without seeming to take any notice of his offspring, or making any farther attempt to introduce it to public attention.

ART. VI. *Tales of my Landlord*, collected and arranged by Jedediah Cleishbotham, Schoolmaster and Parish-Clerk of Gandercleugh. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 8s. Murray. 1817.

LITTLE if any doubt can be entertained that Jedediah Cleishbotham, confessedly a *nom de guerre*, has been in this instance assumed by the author of "Waverley," "Guy Mannering," and "The Antiquary;" and for the filiation of these tales we can only refer to our recent observations on the last-mentioned work, in M. R. for January last. The present collection comprizes merely two tales, but more are promised in succession: of these two, one is contained in the first volume, and the other occupies the remaining three. The preliminary matter, shewing forth the sagacious remarks of the venerable pedagogue as introductory to his tales, may be safely left unnoticed, and we may proceed to the story bearing the terrific appellation of 'the Black Dwarf:' a story, however, which, contrary to the surmises that might be founded on its name, will raise many of our feelings more effectually than that of horror.

The outline of this tale, if we unravel the plot, and commence with those developements which are final in the work itself, is simply this: — Sir Edward Manley, with a fortune ample beyond all his wants, and a mind which might have rendered him not incapable of enjoying it rightly, was fashioned by nature in such a mould as to be little else than a walking emblem of deformity; dwarfish, swarthy, and with a head disproportionate to the body, he felt with regard to himself what Glo'ster said, that he was

> "Cheated of feature by dissembling nature,
> Deform'd, unfinish'd, sent before his time
> Into this breathing world, scarce half made up,
> And that so lamely and unfashionably
> The dogs barked at him." Rich. III.

One individual, however, and this a beautiful and accomplished female, was so habituated to his ugliness, or so overcome by the qualities of his mind, that she appeared to feel no disgust at his person; and on her faith as his betrothed bride, as also on that of one friend, he relied implicitly: these being his only resources against the self-torments which he inflicted on himself, by conceiving that he was loathed by all the human race. He was possessed of uncommon bodily strength; and, in taking the part of his friend against a casual adversary in a dispute over the bottle, he killed the latter, but was redeemed from suffering the severe penalty of the law by one year's imprisonment. Morbid sensibility, which had always been his curse, was now increased by remorse; and, to complete his misery, before his confinement elapsed, his friend and his betrothed bride were husband and wife. The effects of this shock for a time overcame his reason, and he was consequently put under restraint; in which his false friend, now become his trustee, would have detained him, but for the efforts of a conscientious man whom he had formerly obliged. His intended bride died shortly afterward, and his wealth was increased by her property, to which he succeeded as heir of entail, she having left no male issue. He was now a solitary misanthropic being, yet capable of warm acts of benevolence; scarcely indeed to be considered as sane, although his imagination was not so distorted but that he was fully able to draw the proper distinctions in moral action. In this state of mind he formed the uncommon resolution of disguising his person, and retiring altogether from the world; and his mode of putting his plan in execution was as singular as the intention itself.

A young farmer, Hobbie Elliot, and Earnscliff a young laird, were returning together at night over a desart tract called Mucklestane-moor, discoursing on apparitions, for which the former professed the greatest contempt, when his harangue was cut short in the following manner:

> 'The object which alarmed the young farmer in the middle of his valorous protestations, startled for a moment even his less-prejudiced companion. The moon, which had arisen during their conversation, was, in the phrase of that country, wading or struggling with clouds, and shed only a doubtful and occasional light. By one of her beams, which streamed upon the great granite column to which they now approached, they discovered a form, apparently human, but of a size much less than ordinary, which moved slowly among the large grey stones, not like a person intending to journey onward, but with the slow, irregular, flitting movement of a being who hovers around some spot of melancholy recollection, uttering also, from time to time, a sort of indistinct muttering sound. This so much resembled his idea of the motions of an apparition, that Hobbie Elliot, making a dead pause, while his hair erected itself upon his scalp, whispered to his companion, "It's auld Ailie hersel! Shall I gi'e her a shot, in the name of God!"

The short parley that ensued left the humanity of the dwarf very doubtful, and, when he was more known, his character appeared equally awful and ambiguous. The appellation by which he was generally mentioned was that of Old Elshie, or Old Elshender, or the Black Dwarf; and whether he was really a living creature was considered as questionable, but that his knowlege was supernatural was confessed. The mystery which enveloped him secured his dwelling from depredation; and his advice, which was eagerly sought by the superstitious, was deemed perfectly oracular.

In the neighbourhood of this moor lived Mr. Vere, a widower, with an only daughter; he was in the Jacobite-interest, and had committed himself so far in that cause as to be much in the power of Sir Frederick Langley, to whom, in consequence, he had promised his daughter's hand. The daughter, who was in reality attached to Earnscliff, wavered between her dislike of Sir Frederick and her fears for the safety of her father; and in her doubts she had asked the advice of the dwarf, who had promised to relieve her in the hour of need: but on such promises as this she placed little reliance, and was standing at the altar of the chapel in her father's house to make the required sacrifice, when the black dwarf burst forth from behind a monument, and forbade the ceremony to proceed. In justification of his right of interference, he at once declared who he was; and it will probably have been already surmised by the reader that Mr. Vere was no other person than the friend who had married the dwarf's betrothed wife, and his daughter the only issue of that marriage. The same *éclaircissement* likewise shewed that Mr. Vere was a ruined man, and dependant on the bounty of Sir Edward Manley, whom he supposed to be shut up in retirement in foreign countries. Sir Frederick was not anxious for the hand of a lady without a fortune, and that of Miss Vere was wholly dependant on the caprice of the dwarf, who ultimately bestowed it on her when she was united with the object of her own affections.

This may be called the outline of the story: but, as is generally the case with this author, the interest lies almost exclusively in the minuter details; and the finer marks of individuality in character are to be sought among the occasional and less important personages of the drama. The subordinate incidents, as they occur, are also more attractive than the main story, in which the reader feels an interest so far languid as to form no inconsiderable fault in the tale. One of the most pleasing episodes, not from the subject, but from the fine touches with which it is drawn, is the return of Hobbie Elliot to his family, which contained also his betrothed bride, on an evening when during his absence all his worldly wealth had been destroyed by some moss-trooping barbarians, his farm burnt, his cattle driven, and the smoke was yet rising from the ashes.

'By this time Annaple, with a brow like a tragic volume, had hobbled towards him, and caught his horse by the bridle. The despair in her look was so evident as to deprive him even of the power of asking the cause. "O my bairn!" she cried, "gang na forward — gang na forward — it's a sight to kill ony body, let alane thee."

' "In God's name, what's the matter?" said the astonished horseman, endeavouring to extricate his bridle from the grasp of the old woman; "for Heaven's sake, let me go and see what's the matter."

' "Ohon! that I should have lived to see the day! — The steading's a' in a low, and the bonny stack-yard lying in the red ashes, and the gear a' driven away. But gang na forward; it wad break your young heart, hinny, to see what my auld e'en has seen this morning."

' "And who has dared to do this? let go my bridle, Annaple — where is my grandmother — my sisters? — Where is Grace Armstrong? — God! — the words of the warlock are knelling in my ears!"

' He sprung from his horse to rid himself of Annaple's interruption, and, ascending the hill with great speed, soon came in view of the spectacle with which she had threatened him. It was indeed a heart-breaking sight. The habitation which he had left in its seclusion, beside the mountain-stream, surrounded with every evidence of rustic plenty, was now a wasted and blackened ruin. From amongst the shattered and sable walls the smoke continued to rise. The turf-stack, the barn-yard, the offices, stocked with cattle, all the wealth of an upland cultivator of the period, of which poor Elliot possessed no common share, had been laid waste or carried off in a single night. He stood a moment motionless, and then exclaimed, "I am ruined — ruined to the ground! — But curse on the warld's gear — Had it not been the week before my bridal — But I am nae babe, to sit down and greet about it. If I can but find Grace, and my grandmother, and my sisters weel, I can go to the wars in Flanders, as my gude-sire did wi' auld Buccleuch. At ony rate, I will keep up a heart, or they will lose theirs a'thegither." '

Of the second tale the character is very different, since it is founded on historical facts: but it contains a love-story of domestic life, and, when the mind is harassed with violent emotions, relieves it by tender scenes, or the humours of the lower classes. A very general sketch of it must suffice. The scene is laid or rather opens in the upper Clydesdale, and the supposed time is the year 1679, when the government was anxiously attempting to soften the rigour of the Presbyterian institutions by public meetings, and popular games, which the Covenanters resisted with the more asperity because they foresaw their direct tendency to loosen the bonds of their own politico-religious association. At this time, Morton, a young man of high spirit, and better educated than his situation in life might promise, is led away by the force of circumstances (thus in some degree like a second Waverley) to unite himself first partially and in the end altogether with the Covenanters, and with them eventually to share the dangers of war against the royal authority. The combination of events which produced this determination forms no uninteresting portion of the novel, and the campaign itself is the most material part of the story; affording opportunity for a close description of the Covenanters, their habits, manners, language, (not the least peculiarity,) and their principles; which last, although professedly founded on religion, and always concealed under its garb, proceeded invariably on the maxim that all means were justifiable in the attempt to produce a salutary end. For the portraits of the noble-spirited soldier, the haughty dame, and the tender maid, placed in the strongest contrast, we must turn to the opposite party. Of the Covenanters, Morton is the most important, as far as the issue of the tale is concerned, and is the lover of a high-born damsel, who is separated from him as well by rank as the circumstances of the times. His principles are noble, and his errors so induced as to appear almost amiable: but, as in the case of Waverley, he sinks in our interest, though not in our moral estimation, when compared with characters of sterner stuff. Of the latter cast is Balfour of Burley, a mixture of all that is terrific and unamiable in the human character: gloomy and austere, cold and designing, religious and hypocritical; yet bold in action, and indifferent to personal danger on all occasions which he deemed equivalent to the risk. The ensuing picture of him is finely drawn. It is necessary to premise that Morton, before he joined the Covenanters, had secreted Balfour of Burley for one night, the one in question, in an out-house belonging to his uncle. In the morning,

'He dressed himself as fast as possible, opened the door of the house with as little noise as he could, and hastened to the place of refuge occupied by the Covenanter. Morton entered on tiptoe, for the determined tone and manner, as well as the unusual language and sentiments of this singular individual, had struck him with a sensation approaching to awe. Balfour was still asleep. A ray of light streamed on his uncurtained couch, and shewed to Morton the working of his harsh features, which seemed agitated by some strong internal cause of disturbance. He had not undressed. Both his arms were above the bed-cover, the right hand strongly clenched, and occasionally making that abortive attempt to strike which usually attends dreams of violence; the left was extended, and agitated, from time to time, by a movement as if repulsing some one. The perspiration stood on his brow, "like bubbles in a late disturbed stream," and these marks of emotion were accompanied with broken words which escaped from him at intervals — "Thou art taken, Judas — thou art taken — Cling not to my knees—cling not to my knees—hew him down!—A priest? Ay, a priest of Baal, to be bound and slain, even at the brook Kishon.—Fire-arms will not prevail against him—Strike—thrust with the cold iron—put him out of pain—put him out of pain, were it but for the sake of his grey hairs."

'Much alarmed at the import of these expressions, which seemed to burst from him even in sleep with the stern energy accompanying the perpetration of some act of violence, Morton shook his guest by the shoulder in order to wake him. The first words he uttered were, "Bear me where ye will, I will avouch the deed."

'His glance around having then fully awakened him, he at once assumed all the stern and gloomy composure of his ordinary manner, and throwing himself on his knees before speaking to Morton, poured forth an ejaculatory prayer for the suffering Church of Scotland, entreating that the blood of her murdered saints and martyrs might be precious in the sight of Heaven, and that the shield of the Almighty might be spread over the scattered remnant, who, for his name's sake, were abiders in the wilderness. Vengeance—speedy and ample vengeance on the oppressors, was the concluding petition of his devotions, which he expressed aloud in strong and emphatic language, rendered more impressive by the orientalism of Scripture.'

It is curious that mean cunning and low artifice should find place in a mind so strong as that of Balfour; yet it is one of the features which the author has been most solicitous to describe. Cuddy Headrigg, and old Mause his mother, may be regarded as the comic characters. We shall give the reader some idea of the former by comparing him to Sancho Pança, in whose capacity he follows Morton; the chief distinction being that he interlards his discourse with remnants of Scripture, instead of Castilian maxims; while his religious zeal, like Sancho's love of knight-errantry, cools excessively when its owner finds it inconvenient. Not so his mother, old Mause; who testifies to the Lord in season and out of season, in her house, in the fields, and lastly even in battle. A conversation held by her with the Lady Margaret Bellenden, to whom she had been deficient in duties of fealty, first opens her character, of which we give a short specimen:

'Lady Margaret Bellenden heard this exposition of Scripture with the greatest possible indignation as well as susprise.

'"I see which way the wind blaws," she exclaimed, after a pause of astonishment; "the evil spirit of the year sixteen hundred and forty-twa is at wark again as merrily as ever, and ilka auld wife in the chimley-neuck will be for knapping doctrine wi' doctors o' divinity and the godly fathers o' the church."

'"If your Leddyship means the bishops and curates, I'm sure *they hae* been but stepfathers to the Kirk o' Scotland. And, since your Leddyship is pleased to speak o' parting wi' us, I am free to tell you a piece o' my mind in another article. Your Leddyship and the steward hae been pleased to propose that my son Cuddie suld work in the barn wi' a new-fangled machine for dighting the corn frae the chaff, thus impiously thwarting the will of Divine Providence, by raising wind for your Leddyship's ain particular use by human art, instead of soliciting it by prayer, or waiting patiently for whatever dispensation of wind Providence was pleased to send upon the sheeling-hill.'

Certain portions of the Scotch church-militant appear before us in their double capacities of ghostly comforters and military leaders: where the blind lead the blind, the consequences are obvious; and, where a band of ignorant fanatics, despising human experience, and relying on secret admonitions of the Lord and the phantasies of heated imaginations, commanded a misguided multitude, the ultimate event of civil war might easily be foreseen. On some of these points, we conceive this tale to be valuable in an historical light, as detailing in a minute and familiar manner the motives which actuated, the characters that concerted, and the means that upheld, one of the most eventful political and religious schisms with which Scotland was ever divided.

A day of religious humiliation, before battle, was by the Puritans considered as equivalent to all military consultation, and superseded the necessity of all discussion: but, it needs scarcely be added, humility found no place in the harangues of those who addressed the assembled multitudes. One divine appears in this story, Habbakuk Mucklewrath, absolutely insane; and, furious as were most of the fanatics, he carried his ideas to the extermination not only of all the enemies of the Covenant, but even of its suspected friends. Among the latter he included Morton, as a person moderate in his views, and always anxious to check the needless effusion of blood: for to be moderate with most of these preachers was to be an enemy. We quote a sample of the pulpit-eloquence of the Puritans from the harangue of Mucklewrath, and we have no doubt that the portrait is faithful:

' "Fear not," he said, "because of the neighing of horses, or the glittering of the breast-plate. Seek not aid of the Egyptians, because of the enemy, though they may be numerous as locusts, and fierce as dragons. Their trust is not as our trust, nor their rock as our rock; how else shall a thousand fly before one, and two put ten thousand to flight! I dreamed it in the visions of the night, and the voice said, 'Habbakuk, take thy fan and purge the wheat from the chaff, that they be not both consumed with the fire of indignation and the lightning of fury.' Wherefore, I say, take this Henry Morton — this wretched Achan, who hath brought the accursed thing among ye, and made himself brethren in the camp of the enemy — take him and stone him with stones, and thereafter burn him with fire, that the wrath may depart from the children of the Covenant. He hath not taken a Babylonish garment, but he hath sold the garment of righteousness to the woman of Babylon — he hath not taken two hundred shekels of fine silver, but he hath bartered the truth, which is more precious than shekels of silver or wedges of gold."'

The Puritans, commanded by Burley, Morton, and some of the recusant divines, gained considerable advantages; for which, as it might be expected from the nature of their force, they paid but the severer retribution. The Cameronians, or Ultra-puritans, were the first to flie for refuge; and, when Morton ultimately was obliged to do the same, chance brought him to a lonely farm-house, where many of these persons (principally divines) had taken shelter. Morton entered through a window, and found the party at prayer: but, judging from their appearance that no friendship was to be expected from them, he looked round for the possibility of retreat. In the mean time, however, persons had secured the window, and all avenues; and the muttering of prayer was presently exchanged for the exclamations of Mucklewrath:

'"Out upon thee! out upon thee!" exclaimed Mucklewrath, starting up; "the word that thou hast spurned shall become a rock to crush and to bruise thee; the spear which thou wouldst have broken shall pierce thy side; we have prayed, and wrestled, and petitioned, for an offering to atone the sins of the congregation, and, lo! the very head of the offence is delivered into our hand. He hath burst in like a thief through the window; he is a ram caught in the thicket, whose blood shall be a drink-offering to redeem vengeance from the church, and the place shall from henceforth be called Jehovah-Jirah, for the sacrifice is provided. Up then, and bind the victim with cords to the horns of the altar!"'

Another minister, apparently more moderate, addressing himself to Morton, said, "We will reckon with thee, e'er we avenge the cause thou hast betrayed." This reckoning was in no way more favourable than condemnation, since every act of humanity was construed into a breach of trust; and "let him die the death" was the universal vote. Nevertheless, as the day was the Sabbath, the execution was postponed until after twelve o'clock, and ever and anon looks were turned to the dial-plate of the time-piece to watch the progress of the fatal hour.

'It was with pain he (Morton) felt his mind wavering while on the brink between this and the future world. He made a strong effort to compose himself to devotional exercises, and, unequal, during that fearful strife of nature, to arrange his own thoughts into suitable expressions, he had, instinctively, recourse to the petition for deliverance and for composure of spirit which is to be found in the Book of Common Prayer of the Church of England. Macbriar, whose family were of that persuasion, instantly recognized the words which the unfortunate prisoner pronounced half aloud.

'"There lacked but this," he said, his pale cheek kindling with resentment, "to rout out my carnal reluctance to see his blood spilt. He is a prelatist who has sought the camp under the disguise of an Erastian, and all, and more than all, that has been said of him, must needs be verity. His blood be on his head, the deceiver! — let him go down to Tophet with the ill-mumbled mass which he calls a prayer-book in his right hand."

'"I take up my song against him!" exclaimed the maniac. "As the sun went back on the dial ten degrees for intimating the recovery of holy Hezekiah, so shall it now go forward, that the wicked may be taken away from among the people, and the Covenant established in its purity."'

With this passage we must close our extracts; adding, for the consolation of our readers, that Morton's life was saved by the timely intervention of the royal forces; and that he lived to accomplish, according to the approved precedent of most novels, the purposes of domestic life for which the author created him. We have kept clear of the general story, confining ourselves to the description of a race of men whose savage excentricities form a physical curiosity in the history of our species; and we do not believe that this account of them is overcharged. Altogether, indeed, it is in the delineation of manners that this work is peculiarly excellent. With the same view, we have altogether omitted any account of personages of less rare occurrence, although in their several capacities they give food for sufficient observation. The strong mixture of Scotish phraseology may render the perusal of these volumes somewhat difficult to southern readers: but they will interest all, and mostly those who best can understand them.

Art. VII. *Speeches of the Right Honourable John Philpot Curran,* Master of the Rolls in Ireland, on the late very interesting State Trials. Fourth Edition, with Additions. 8vo. pp. 486. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Scarcely any word in our language has a less definite import than the word *eloquence*. It is sometimes limited to *spoken*, and at other times comprehends *written* language.

When applied to speaking, it is often still farther restricted, and is intended to express merely the fluency, or the ease and copiousness, of the speaker's elocution; and often also it is made to indicate the quality of his ideas, without reference to any facility with which they may be enunciated. In like manner, when rendered descriptive of written language, it sometimes relates to the freedom and readiness with which the composition appears to have been produced, in contradistinction to a harsh, operose, and ill connected phraseology: but here, also, as in the instance of spoken language, it more usually alludes to some characteristic in the thoughts. These characteristics or qualities of thought, to which the word, whether in reference to speaking or to writing, is applied, are very various, and hence the chief source of its different significations. Of these, however, the principal seem to be four. *First,* It sometimes expresses mere fertility or redundance of conception, whether consisting of argument, explanation, or any other detail of what is more strictly understood by *thought,* or the literal and bare perceptions of the intellect. *Secondly,* It sometimes relates to the quantity and ardour of the sentiments or affections of the heart with which the speaker or writer is moved. *Thirdly,* On other occasions it is employed to denote more particularly the vivacity and variety of imagery in which he delights to embody his conceptions. *Fourthly,* It frequently embraces all the above three considerations together.

Of the *first* and least popular sort of eloquence, the compositions of Tillotson may be mentioned as an example. With scarcely any sentiment, and yet rarer fancy, he abounds in argument and illustration; and, as if writing solely to the most stupid and inattentive, he never quits the reader until, by the wearisome superfluity of his reasonings and explanations, he has prepared him for brisker and more heart-stirring entertainment. As a speaker, the late Mr. Pitt appears to have been of the same order: with whom great fluency in statement and exposition, and occasionally in reasoning, seems to have been the chief feature of eloquence, very little relieved either by sentiment or by imagination. The eloquence of the bar, also, as it is called, particularly when employed in civil cases, may be mentioned generally as a farther example of this drier kind of eloquence. The orations of Cicero rise considerably above it; being, with all their amplification of statement and argument, always imbued with sentiment which is often impassioned, and sometimes imaginative. D'Aguesseau, the French lawyer, ranks also much above this standard, precisely for the same *reason;* like his model, Cicero, amplification is his character:

but his heart always appears in his discourses, together with a still richer vein of imagination than the Roman orator displays.

Demosthenes, Lord Chatham, and Fox, may be given as examples of the *second* species. Profoundly concerned for the welfare of the state and the happiness of their countrymen,—deeply affected with the importance of the business before them,—and ever penetrated with the inspiring feelings of sincerity,—their thoughts were the creation of the heart rather than of any effort of the intellect. Hence we find in them every variety of argument, and every topic of persuasion, but never any regular or elaborate deduction of the particulars of either. The argument and the topic are abruptly and roundly presented glowing from the heart, and immediately disappear to make room for a similar abrupt and glowing succession of new arguments and topics. The ardour of interrogation is the favourite form of speech; the imagination has no place, except when figurative language may occasionally be the natural and unsought expression of profound emotion; and the whole tenor of their words is necessarily like their thoughts, unstudied, warm, and vigorous; disdaining the coldness and insincerity of musical periods and counterpoised sentences, and comprizing every variety of style, without any of its labour and artifice.

Of the *third* sort of eloquence, or that in which the imagination is most prevalent, no better example occurs to us than Burke. The bare intellectual term is by him rarely employed; his ideas are generally presented through the medium of all sorts of tropes and figures; the creative power of his fancy is exhaustless; and the more attentive the reader is, the more is his imagination occupied and delighted with the endless succession of pictures that are made to pass before it.

Though fancy, however, is the predominating faculty of Burke, he is an equally fit example of the *fourth* and highest species of eloquence to which we have alluded;—that which comprehends the characteristic excellences of all the rest. Often argumentative throughout the detail of every step of the deduction, and delighting in a deliberate copiousness of statement and illustration, he is at other times abrupt, impetuous, ardent;—affected by every emotion of which the human breast is susceptible, from the sneer of contemptuous derision to the deep and awful indignation which is excited by the overwhelming power of official villainy,—from the playful jocularity of childhood to the profound melancholy of wounded benevolence and suffering patriotism. With the inexhaustible imagination of which we have taken notice, and a fine strain not only of philosophy which binds together but of classical scholarship which still farther adorns all his conceptions, this great man's eloquence is indeed of a comprehensive character; — and such, we have now to add, is the character of *Irish* eloquence generally. We are perfectly aware that much misapplied declamation, figurative bombast, and caricature, have of late had their parentage in that quarter; and that *Irish eloquence* is therefore, with some, an expression of rather equivocal import: but the most splendid of arts is the most liable to be imitated and abused; and the luxuriant and unskilful productions of youth, or the ridiculous airs of pretenders, are not to be confounded with the efforts of masters, or regarded as the criterion of the taste and genius of a nation. Occasionally the most acute reasoning, sometimes abrupt, and at other times drawn out to ratiocination, — frequently all the variety of emotion of which our nature is capable, — humour, sarcasm, pathos of every species and degree, — but above all an incessant creation of fancy, in whose forms every idea is embodied and adorned, and presented to the reader or hearer rather as an object for his senses to contemplate than a thought for his understanding to conceive, — this is the nature of Irish eloquence, and, we may also say, of every combination of words that is properly distinguished by the name of eloquence.

It would be a curious and not uninstructive speculation to inquire, at some length, into the causes of this striking feature in the national character of Ireland. We agree with those philosophers who pay no regard to the doctrine of natural and original peculiarities of mind, when applied to whole communities. Were a French infant conveyed into Holland and consigned to a Dutch nursery, tutored exclusively by Dutch pedagogues, and confined to Dutch landscape, business, and society, we cannot doubt that he would incur at least as great a chance of turning out a silent, solemn, smoking, dull Dutchman, as of becoming an alert and sprightly Frenchman. Nature certainly forms *individuals* with different capacities: but this fact is not to be applied to any particular character of mind pervading a whole nation. To say, therefore, that the cast of mind of which we are speaking is to be ascribed to the genius of the Irish people, if by the phrase we mean that the mere circumstance of birth shall account for the fact, would be quite unphilosophical: — it would be accounting for nothing, since history every where presents us with the same race of men exhibiting the most different characters according to the circumstances by which they are affected; — it would be merely a re-statement of the same fact in another form of words. Without intending to enter into the speculation at any length, we shall here only indicate two or three of the principal causes which appear to us explanatory of the circumstance in question.

1. The civil and political situation of the Irish people, ever since they came under the dominion of the English government, must have occasioned a constant agitation of mind, and cherished all the more violent affections of the human breast: the whole of their history, from the days of the Pale down to the completion of the Union, (which appears to have been sufficiently efficacious in taming their political ardour,) being little else than a series of encroachment, oppression, and cruelty on the one hand, and of resistance and revenge on the other. The monstrous spectacle of a few, and those few being originally strangers possessed of no right but that of power, forcing on the general body of the nation by the gibbet and the sword every measure which avarice or ambition could dictate, not winning their submission and attachment by a generous and indulgent policy, is indeed almost the sole object presented by their annals. They have been, however, too numerous, brave, hardy, and united, and aided by too many local advantages, to be thoroughly broken and subdued by a government whose authority depended chiefly on its foreign support; so that the spirit of contention was balanced, and neither were the people at any time completely reduced nor was their oppression successfully resisted. Such a state of society could not fail to awaken and keep alive all the stronger energies of our nature. Like the civil wars of England, it must have elicited and exercised all the faculties of the mind and powers of the heart; sharpening and improving the former by every species of actual business, and aggravating the latter through all their modes, from the fury of revenge to the resignation of melancholy and despair; until, from the general mass of the people so affected, occasionally emerged their counter-parts to our Pyms, our Falklands, our Harringtons, and our Hampdens.

2. The opposition of religious opinions must have powerfully contributed to produce similar effects. With less generosity, however, there would be more subtility and reasoning in the dispute; and declamation, invective, and even the aids of wit and humour, would occasionally be called in to expose the errors and ridicule the ceremonies of the faith of the contending parties.

3. From the state of subjection and poverty in which Ireland has been retained by the selfish policy of England, she has hitherto made very little progress in commerce and

manufactures. Besides a few simple processes in the latter, not yet brought to such perfection by a minute subdivision of labour as to occupy much either of her capital or her population, and adequate to little else than her own supply, tillage and the breeding of cattle are her chief employment and sources of support. The people, therefore, enjoy all the advantages connected with this state of society; viz. the variety of mental exercise, the shrewdness, the sagacity, and the stronger tone of social feeling, which arise from a life of this description, in comparison with the vacant uniformity and stupifying confinement of manufacturing drudgery.

4. To these causes may be added the physical aspect of the country. It cannot be doubted that natural scenery produces a very powerful impression on the mind; not only affecting the hearts of men according as it is grand, lovely, rugged, or gentle, and storing the fancy with almost the only imagery that is worth collecting, but also lending its associations to the intellect, and imparting a correspondent grandeur and magnificence, or simplicity and sweetness, to the mere operations of the understanding. Ireland abounds in all this variety of natural objects, in a very extensive and picturesque degree; and to this circumstance we are disposed to ascribe no inconsiderable share of the romantic and fervent character of its inhabitants.

We certainly do not mean to allege that the whole Irish people are orators or poets. We mean only to say that such is the leaning of their character; and it must be granted that to individuals whose education assists, and whose professional destiny requires, the culture of eloquent habits, such a state of society, by the constant collision which they necessarily have with it, must be strongly efficacious in developing to its full extent that talent which would otherwise have been but imperfectly disclosed, or would have lain altogether unexercised and dormant.

In the instance immediately before us, this education, this professional destiny, and this state of society, appear to have operated in their full measure. The speeches of Mr. Curran, we are assured by the preface of the editor, are unauthenticated by their author: they have been collected from the reports of news-papers, and other ephemeral publications of the times in which they were delivered, and never had the benefit of his correction or revision; they are, therefore, (with the exception of the pleading for Hevey and one or two others,) very imperfect in point of full developement and intimate connection of argument and statement; yet they present, on the whole, a very striking specimen of what we have briefly noted as the character of Irish eloquence. They abound in passages scarcely inferior to any in the writings of Burke; and they display perpetual succession and exuberance of imagery, compass and variety of sentiment and passion, occasional playfulness of elocution, artful management of argument, classical allusions, vivacity of narrative, and dramatic exhibition of character. They must always be regarded, therefore, considering the great disadvantages under which they have appeared, as forming a very interesting and curious publication; honourable in an eminent degree to the genius of the individual and the country to which they owe their birth.

This edition of the book* contains specimens of the oratory of Mr. Curran according to the different situations in which he has been placed; as a member of parliament, as a lawyer, and as a judge, while he held the office of Master of the Rolls. Of the first, the reports are for the most part very much abridged, imperfect, and sometimes unintelligible; and unhappily the speech on the momentous question of Catholic-emancipation ranks in this number. Yet even in these defective notes, and still more in the two or three instances in which the reports are fuller and evidently more genuine, Mr. Curran's talent for parliamentary speaking is very conspicuous; being much above the dry detail of mere debate, and yet equally remote from the vagueness and vulgarity of mere popular declamation. Of his professional speeches as a lawyer, the greater part relate to the interesting subjects of sedition and treason; intermixed with one or two others of a miscellaneous nature. The reports of all these are likewise very various as to fulness, perspicuity, and characteristic features. With the exception, however, of the speeches for Bond and Kirwan, (which are intolerably dull and imperfect, and ought by no means to have been admitted into the volume in their present state,) and one or two slovenly sketches, they all abound in examples of the most captivating oratory, and of every variety of excellence. The speeches for the Common Council of Dublin, and for Hamilton Rowan and Hevey, (particularly the latter,) are by far the most copious, and evidently those in which the true raciness of Mr. Curran's manner is best exhibited; indeed, so ably are they reported, that, were we not solemnly assured to the contrary, we should have had little hesitation in concluding that they had been revised by the orator himself. Never, we believe, in the history either of the antient or the modern bar, were the higher qualities of eloquence more boldly introduced and more strikingly realized. Whether he explains his ideas of the law to the bench, or reasons on the evidence to the jury, the utmost simplicity and distinctness pervade his conceptions; while the sentiment and the fancy, which never cease to accompany and enrich his thoughts, are distinguished by the rare excellence of being equally adapted to the unrefined but natural feelings of the jury, and to the more reserved and elegant, though not less assailable, perceptions of the judge. — Of Mr. Curran's *judiciary* eloquence, we are presented with but one specimen. Yet even here (where eloquence is vulgarly supposed to have no place, and is certainly but seldom found,) the genius of the orator does not forsake him; and, amid the clear statement of principle and decisive firmness of manner with which the judgment is delivered, the liberal sentiments of the heart, as well as a chastised play of the fancy, temper the severity while they augment the authority of the decision.

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* The former editions did not come before us; and we owe an apology to our readers for not having sooner introduced to them so interesting a work.

We shall now indulge ourselves with quoting two or three examples of the varied excellence which characterizes these orations, imperfectly as they are here reported. —There is, in course, no subject on which Mr. Curran feels more intensely than the mis-rule and degradation by which his country has been so long and so deeply afflicted; and on this theme, accordingly, he never fails to express himself with all the warmth and generous indignation of suffering patriotism. In the speech before the Lord-Lieutenant and Privy Council, in behalf of the civic rights of the people of Dublin, he thus sketches the ordinary character of Irish administrations:

' Sometimes, my Lords, 'tis true, a rare individual has appeared among us as if sent by the bounty of Providence in compassion to human miseries, marked by that dignified simplicity of manly character, which is the mingled result of an enlightened understanding and an elevated integrity; commanding a respect that he laboured not to inspire; and attracting a confidence which it was impossible he could betray. It is but eight years, my Lords, since we have seen such a man amongst us, raising a degraded country from the condition of a province to the rank and consequence of a people, worthy to be the ally of a mighty empire; forming the league that bound her to Great Britain, on the firm and honourable basis of equal liberty and a common fate, " standing and falling with the British empire;" and thus stipulating for that freedom which alone contains the principle of her political life, in the covenant of her federal connection. But how short is the continuance of those auspicious gleams of public sunshine! how soon are they passed, and perhaps for ever! In what rapid and fatal revolution has Ireland seen the talents and the virtues of such men give place to a succession of sordid parade, and empty pretension, of bloated promise, and lank performance, of austere hypocrisy and peculating economy! Hence it is, my Lords, that the administration of Ireland so often presents to the reader of her history, the view not of a legitimate government, but rather of an encampment in the country of a barbarous enemy; where the object of the invader is not dominion but conquest; where he is of course obliged to resort to the corrupting of clans, or of single individuals, pointed out to his notice by public abhorrence, and recommended to his confidence only by a treachery so rank and consummate, as precludes all possibility of their return to private virtue or to public reliance, and therefore only put into authority over a wretched country, condemned to the torture of all that petulant unfeeling asperity with which a narrow and malignant mind will bristle in unmerited elevation; condemned to be betrayed, and disgraced, and exhausted by the little traitors that have been suffered to nestle and to grow within it, making it at once the source of their grandeur and the victim of their vices, reducing it to the melancholy necessity of supporting their consequence, and of sinking under their crimes, like the lion perishing by the poison of a reptile that finds shelter in the mane of the noble animal, while it is stinging him to death.' (P. 28.)

Again, in the speech for Finnerty, who was charged with publishing a seditious libel, the same indignant sentiments are indulged. Mr. C. thus exclaims:

> 'I do not wonder that the government of Ireland should stand appalled at the state to which we are reduced. I wonder not that they should start at the public voice, and labour to stifle or contradict it. I wonder not that at this arduous crisis, when the very existence of the empire is at stake, and when its strongest and most precious limb is not girt with the sword for battle, but pressed by the tourniquet for amputation; when they find the coldness of death already begun in those extremities where it never ends, that they are terrified at what they have done, and wish to say to the surviving parties of that empire, "they cannot say that we did it."' (P. 294.)

Notwithstanding the very defective report of the speech on Catholic-emancipation in the Irish Commons, the same feelings appear to have occupied much of the speaker's mind. 'Having gone,' says the reporter of the speech, 'into a detail of the property-laws as they affected the Catholics of Ireland, Mr. Curran decribed them as destructive of arts, of industry, of private morals, and public order, as extirpating even the Christian religion from among them, and reducing them to the condition of savages and rebels, disgraceful to humanity, and formidable to the state; and having traced the progress and effects of those laws from the Revolution to 1779;'

'Let me now ask you,' said he, 'how have those laws affected the Protestant subject and the Protestant constitution? In that interval were they free? Did they possess that liberty which they denied to their brethren? No, Sir, where there are inhabitants, but no people, there can be no freedom; unless there be a spirit, and what may be called a pull in the people, a free government cannot be kept steady or fixed in its seat. You had indeed a government, but it was planted in civil dissension, and watered in civil blood, and whilst the venomous luxuriance of its branches aspired to heaven, its infernal roots shot downward to their congenial regions, and were interwined in hell. Our ancestors thought themselves the oppressors of their fellow-subjects, but they were only their jailors; and the justice of Providence would have been frustrated, if their own slavery had not been the punishment of their vice and their folly.' (P. 114.)

The noblest sentiments in favour of general liberty are also a distinguishing feature of these orations: but we can afford room for only one short example:

'It is the common fate of the indolent,' says the undaunted and independent orator in his speech before the Lord-Lieutenant and Privy Council, 'to see their rights become a prey to the active. The condition upon which God hath given liberty to man is eternal vigilance; which condition if he break, servitude is at once the consequence of his crime, and the punishment of his guilt.

'In this state of abasement the Commons remained for a number of years; sometimes supinely acquiescing under their degradation; sometimes, what was worse, exasperating the fury and alarming the caution of their oppressors, by ineffectual resistance:—the slave that struggles, without breaking his chain, provokes the tyrant to double it; and gives him the plea of self-defence for extinguishing what, at first, he only intended to subdue.' (P. 4.)

We give the following as a specimen of Mr. Curran's admirable powers of irony and ridicule. A bill having been presented to the Commons for limiting the amount of pensions, Sir Boyle Roche opposed it, observing that "it would stop the fountain of royal favour, which ought to flow freely, spontaneously, and abundantly, like Holywell in Wales."

'I am surprised,' said Mr. Curran, 'that gentlemen have taken up such a foolish opinion, as that our constitution is maintained by its different component parts, mutually checking and controuling each other; they seem to think with Hobbes, that a state of nature is a state of warfare, and that, like Mahomet's coffin, the constitution is suspended between the attraction of different powers. My friends seem to think that the crown should be restrained from doing wrong by a physical necessity, forgetting, that if you take away from man all power to do wrong, you at the same time take away from him all merit of doing right, and by making it impossible for men to run into slavery, you enslave them more effectually. But if, instead of the three different parts of our constitution drawing forcibly in right lines, at opposite directions, they were to unite their power and draw all one way, in one right line, how great would be the effect of their force, how happy the direction of this union! The present system is not only contrary to mathematical rectitude, but to public harmony; but if instead of Privilege setting up his back to oppose Prerogative, he was to saddle his back and invite Prerogative to ride, how comfortably they might both jog along; and therefore it delights me to hear the advocates for the royal bounty flowing freely and spontaneously and abundantly, as Holywell in Wales. If the crown grants double the amount of the revenue in pensions, they approve of their royal master, for he is the breath of their nostrils.

'But we shall find that this complaisance, this gentleness between the crown and its true servants, is not confined at home,—it extends its influence to foreign powers. Our merchants have been insulted in Portugal, our commerce interdicted; what did the British Lion do? did he whet his tusks? did he bristle up and shake his mane? did he roar? No, no such thing; the gentle creature wagged his tale for six years at the court of Lisbon, and now we hear from the Delphic oracle on the treasury-bench, that he is wagging his tail in London to Chevalier Pinto, who, he hopes soon to be able to tell us, will allow his lady to entertain him as a lap-dog; and when she does, no doubt the British factory will furnish some of their softest woollens to make a cushion for him to lie upon. But though the gentle beast has continued so long fawning and couching, I believe his vengeance will be great as it is slow, and that posterity, whose ancestors are yet unborn, will be surprised at the vengeance he will take. This polyglot of wealth, this museum of curiosities, the pension-list, embraces every link in the human chain, every description of men, women, and children, from the exalted excellence of a Hawke or a Rodney, to the debased situation of the lady who humbleth herself that she may be exalted. But the lessons it inculcates form its greatest perfection. It teacheth that sloth and vice may eat that bread which virtue and honesty may starve for after they had earned it. It teaches the idle and dissolute to look up for that support which they are too proud to stoop and earn. It directs the minds of men to an entire reliance on the ruling power of the state, who feed the ravens of the royal aviary that cry continually for food. It teaches them to imitate these saints on the pension-list that are like the lilies of the field—they toil not, neither do they spin, and yet are arrayed like Solomon in all his glory. In fine, it teaches a lesson which indeed they might have learned from Epictetus—that it is sometimes good not to be over-virtuous; it shews, that in proportion as our distresses increase, the munificence of the crown increases also; in proportion as our clothes are rent, the royal mantle is extended over us.' (P. 96.)

In personal invective, Mr. C.'s poignancy, while equally severe, is not less adorned with the finest elocution. In the speech before the Privy Council already mentioned, he thus analyzes a former Lord Chancellor; and, from the frequent pettish and biassed interruptions of the Chancellor then present, it is not improbable that the pleader meant to glance at him also:

> 'In this very chamber did the Chancellor and Judges sit, with all the gravity and affected attention to arguments in favour of that liberty and those rights which they had conspired to destroy. But to what end, my Lords, offer argument to such men? A little and a peevish mind may be exasperated, but how shall it be corrected by refutation? How fruitless would it have been to represent to that wretched chancellor, that he was betraying those rights which he was sworn to maintain; that he was involving a government in disgrace, and a kingdom in panic and consternation; that he was violating every sacred duty, and every solemn engagement that bound him to himself, his country, his sovereign, and his God! Alas, my Lords, by what argument could any man hope to reclaim or dissuade a mean, illiberal, and unprincipled minion of authority, induced by his profligacy to undertake, and bound by his avarice and vanity to persevere? He would probably have replied to the most unanswerable arguments, by some curt, contumelious, and unmeaning apophthegm, delivered with the fretful smile of irritated self-sufficiency, and disconcerted arrogance; or, even if he could be dragged by his fears to a consideration of the question, by what miracle could the pigmy capacity of a stunted pedant be enlarged to a reception of the subject? The endeavour to approach it would have only removed him to a greater distance than he was before; as a little hand that strives to grasp a mighty globe is thrown back by the re-action of its own effort to comprehend. It may be given to a Hale, or a Hardwicke, to discover and retract a mistake; the errors of such men are only specks that arise for a moment upon the surface of a splendid luminary; consumed by its heat, or irradiated by its light, they soon purge and disappear; but the perverseness of a mean and narrow intellect are like the excrescences that grow upon a body naturally cold and dark; no fire to waste them, and no ray to enlighten, they assimilate and coalesce with those qualities so congenial to their nature, and acquire an incorrigible permanency in the union with kindred frost and kindred opacity. Nor indeed, my Lords, except where the interest of millions can be affected by the folly or the vice of an individual, need it be much regretted, that, to things not worthy of being made better, it hath not pleased Providence to afford the privilege of improvement.' (P. 33.)

With the same spirit he retorts on the Attorney-general; who, in a speech of much personality, had opposed Mr. Curran's motion in the House of Commons on the subject of attachments: but we have not room for farther exemplifications of this kind of oratorical warfare.

The blaze of imagination, or what may more peculiarly be called the poetry of eloquence, which every where breaks forth in these speeches, is scarcely equalled by that of any prose-composition with which we are acquainted; certainly not by any example of forensic pleading, either antient or modern, which has yet found its way to the notice of the public. To make even a selection of such passages would be to exhaust a considerable portion of the volume; and we can indulge only in one very short quotation, as a specimen both of the grandeur and the classical correctness of Mr. Curran's fanciful conceptions. It is taken from the conclusion of the address to the jury in the trial of Mr. Rowan for sedition; when the orator, distressed with the official and probably therefore partial selection of jurors, discovers to them his apprehensions, while he dexterously turns the circumstance, by considerations of regard for their own character, into an argument of acquittal.

> 'When your sentence shall have sent him forth to that stage, which guilt alone can render infamous, let me tell you, he will not be like a little statue upon a mighty pedestal, diminishing by elevation; but he will stand a striking and imposing object upon a monument, which, if it does not (and it cannot) record the atrocity of his crime, must record the atrocity of his conviction. Upon this subject, therefore, credit me when I say that I am still more anxious for you, than I can possibly be for him. I cannot but feel the peculiarity of your situation: not the jury of his own choice, which the law of England allows, but which our's refuses, collected in that box by a person, certainly no friend to Mr. Rowan, certainly not very deeply interested in giving him a very impartial jury. Feeling this, as I am persuaded you do, you cannot be surprised, however you may be distressed, at the mournful presage with which an anxious public is led to fear the worst from your possible determination: but I will not, for the justice and honour of our common country, suffer my mind to be borne away by such melancholy anticipation. I will not relinquish the confidence that this day will be the period of his sufferings; and, however mercilessly he has hitherto been pursued, that your verdict will send him home to the arms of his family, and the wishes of his country. But if, which Heaven forbid, it hath still been unfortunately determined, that because he has not bent to power and authority, because he would not bow down before the golden calf and worship it, he is to be bound and cast into the furnace; I do trust in God, that there is a redeeming spirit in the Constitution, which will be seen to walk with the sufferer through the flames, and to preserve him unhurt from conflagration.' (P. 197.)

In story-telling, and dramatic exhibition of character, Mr. Curran is not less skilful, and we wish that our limits would permit us to close our extracts with the example which occurs in the speech delivered in the Irish House of Commons on the subject of the famous commercial resolutions of 1785: but the fanciful illustration which Mr. C. introduced in his speech on this subject, though not too long for his creative powers and ready wit, is too extensive for our already invaded boundaries.

In making the preceding extracts, we have not been directed by a choice of those which appeared to us the best, but rather of such as had been least noted by the public. The greater part of the volume abounds in an equally high display of such various intellect; and frequently a still richer vein presents itself, particularly in the speech before the Privy Council, in those that were delivered in the House of Commons on the limitation of pensions, and in the speeches for Rowan, Finney, Finnerty, Hevey, and Mr. Justice Johnston. Unauthorized as this publication is, we do not feel justified in saying much more of its defects. On the contrary, the world is certainly obliged to the editor for having preserved, however imperfectly, these celebrated effusions; and the bar of Ireland may well be proud of having given birth to efforts which, in this respect, so far excel the attempts of the bar of either of the sister kingdoms. Yet we cannot but observe that the whole of the speech on the right of the Commons to originate money-bills, the second of the two on the commercial resolutions, and (as we have already remarked) those in behalf of Bond and Kirwan, should have been altogether omitted. We take no notice of occasional improprieties and flatnesses of expression, amid the general spirit with which the reports are executed: but the blundering typography ought to have been corrected.

ART. VIII. *Outlines of Natural Philosophy;* being Heads of Lectures delivered in the University of Edinburgh. By John Playfair, Professor of Natural Philosophy, &c. Vols. I. and II. 8vo. 9s. and 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

We believe that it is the intention of Professor Playfair to add a third volume to the two which he has already printed, of his Heads of Lectures; and, if we had seen any prospect of its early appearance, we should have deferred our report till the work had been completed: but, as we cannot learn that any period is fixed for the publication of Vol. III., and as the first and second volumes have been now for a considerable time before us, we are unwilling to delay any longer our account of this performance, which the celebrity of its author will render interesting to many of our scientific readers.

Vol. I. is divided into seven distinct heads, or chapters; viz. 1st. An *Introduction*; containing a Variety of Definitions and Illustrations connected with the Laws of Motion, the Properties of Matter, &c. 2d. *Dynamics*, consisting of six Sections; on the Measures of Motion; the first Law of Motion; the Communication of Motion by Impulse; Motion equably accelerated or retarded; the Motion of Projectiles; and Motion accelerated or retarded by variable Forces. The third head relates to *Mechanics*, viz. the Centre of Gravity; the Mechanical Powers; on Friction; Mechanical Agents; Motion of Machines; the Descent of heavy Bodies on plane and curved Surfaces; the Centre of Oscillation; and the Rotation of Bodies about fixed and movable Axes; to which part is also subjoined an Appendix on the Construction of Arches, and the Strength of Timber.

Chapter 4. treats of *Hydrostatics*, and is divided into three sections; on the Pressure of Fluids, on Bodies floating on Fluids, and on the Phenomena of Capillary Tubes. The subject of *Hydraulics*, which follows next in order, occupies five sections; Fluids issuing through Apertures in the Bottom or Sides of Vessels; in Conduit Pipes and open Canals; the Percussion and Resistance of Fluids; the Undulation of Fluids; and Hydraulic Engines. The sixth chapter treats of *Aerostatics*, viz. on Heat, and the Equilibrium of elastic Fluids; and the seventh on *Pneumatics*, which is divided into three sections; 1st. On Air as accelerating or retarding Motion; 2d. On Air as the Vehicle of Sound; and, 3d. On the same Fluid as the Vehicle of Heat and Moisture.

The above is a concise synopsis of the contents of this volume; and the general execution displays a considerable portion of that elegance and accuracy for which its author is so justly esteemed, and on which rests much of the mathematical fame that he has acquired with the British public. While, however, we bear this willing testimony to the taste and learning exhibited by Professor Playfair in the composition of this performance, we ought not to pass unnoticed those blemishes which we either see or fancy that we see in some parts of it. — The general nature of the work is sufficiently indicated in the title-page; viz. 'Heads of Lectures;' which will be understood to imply that it contains, first, accurate definitions of the terms, and illustrations of the several principles

ciples on which it treats; secondly, that it should exhibit all the most important and general theorems connected with the different branches of natural philosophy, with indications of the best methods of investigation, or references to the most authentic sources of information; and thirdly, it is highly important that the author, whose fame is calculated to inspire his readers with confidence, should be particularly careful in exploding all paradoxical and fantastical results, however long they may have been sanctioned by writers on these subjects. Professor Playfair is almost the last man whom we should have suspected of falling into errors of this kind; yet we think that some instances of it appear in the volume before us. The first that we shall notice, though not the first in order, occurs in article 233., in treating of the strength of hollow cylinders; where the author observes: 'It is also said that a tube of metal has been found to support a greater transverse strain than a solid cylinder of the same diameter; or that a solid cylinder, when bored in the direction of the axis, and a considerable part taken away, was stronger than before.

'This must undoubtedly arise from a change taking place in the position of the fulcrum or hinge round which the fracture is made. In the case of a cylinder, and, indeed, of all solids, the fulcrum is not the mere outward edge, but a point in the interior; on the one side of which the fibres are elongated, and on the other crushed together. The point, then, which serves as the fulcrum, will be found within the solid, at a greater or less distance, as the parts resist lengthening more than crushing. The consequence of this is, that when the centre of gravity and the fulcrum are brought nearer to one another, the strength of the beam or bar is diminished. When the heart of a solid mass is cut out, as is supposed of the cylinder, the fulcrum, or the axis of the fracture, is perhaps kept nearer to the surface than when the whole is a solid mass. This, at least, seems to be the most probable account that can, at present, be given of a phenomenon not a little paradoxical, and not yet sufficiently examined.'

We know not where the experiments were made to which this passage refers: but for our own part we are much inclined to doubt the fact; and we are a little surprized to see the author endeavouring to account for a phænomenon, which, as he acknowleges, is not sufficiently established, and which therefore a slight degree of reflection would have led him to discredit. It is perhaps an assertion much of the same kind with that which was made by Emerson when treating on the same subject; viz. that, when the edge is taken off from a triangular prismatic beam to one-ninth of the depth, the remaining part is stronger than the whole; and which again resembles the well known vulgar idea that, after a piece has been taken from a tapering tree, the part remaining is greater than the whole. This is certainly a more glaring absurdity, but they each originate in the same source, the inaccuracy of the mode of computation; and it is therefore equally vain to endeavour to account for either the one or the other of them on physical principles. In fine, this chapter bears strong indications of the author having thought very little for himself on the subject of it; and yet it is not unworthy of the attention of a philosopher.

We notice also something of this kind in article 129., where the topic is the pressure of a horizontal plane, loaded with a weight in a given point, on the props by which it is supported:

> 'If a weight W, be sustained on a horizontal plane by three props, (not in a straight line,) the pressure on each will be the same as if a single weight were laid on it, so that the sum of all the three weights were equal to W, and their common centre of gravity the same with the centre of gravity of that body.
>
> 'If the props be A, B, C, and if W be placed with its centre of gravity at D, and if ADG, BDF, CDE, be drawn, the pressure
>
> $$\text{on } A \text{ is } \frac{DG}{AG} \times W,$$
>
> $$\text{on } B \text{ is } \frac{DF}{BF} \times W,$$
>
> $$\text{on } C \text{ is } \frac{DE}{CE} \times W.$$
>
> 'When D coincides with the centre of gravity of the triangle ABC, the pressure on each of the props is the same.
>
> '*If* W *be supported by more than three props, the problem appears to be indeterminate, or to admit of innumerable solutions.*
>
> 'Nevertheless, if the centre of gravity of W, as it rests on the plane, be the same with the centre of gravity of the figure made by joining the tops of the props by straight lines, the pressures on the props are all equal to one another.'

The figure here supposed may easily be supplied by the reader; and we have put in italics that part of the above abstract which we conceive to be erroneous. If a plane, however irregular, be supported on props perfectly horizontal, and the plane be then loaded with a given weight, nothing is more obvious, (however difficult it may be to make the computation,) than that each prop bears a certain and determined portion of the weight; whereas, from the author's words, we might be led to infer that, a plane being so circumstanced, the several props would bear at different intervals different pressures: or, at least, that several planes, all placed under equal and similar pressures, would produce different pressing forces on the props by which they are supported. Such a sentence is almost calculated to call up the ghost of Leibnitz; since, if it were well founded, the doctrine of *sufficient reason* must be at once given up as untenable. If we reverse the problem, by supposing the plane to be supported on a given point, and require the weights, which, being suspended from the several points where the props stood, will produce an equilibrium in the system, there will then be a degree of indetermination in the results, provided that the number of weights exceeded three; for the only condition in this case, necessary to be established, would be that the sum of the several weights should be equal to the given weight, and that they should be so arranged that their centre of gravity should coincide with the point of support. That is to say, referring the action of those weights to any two rectangular co-ordinates, the equilibrium would only involve three equations of the form

$$x + y + z + \&c. = w$$
$$ax + by + cz + \&c. = o$$
$$a'x + b'y + c'z + \&c. = o;$$

and, consequently, when the number of weights exceeds three, the resulting equation becomes indeterminate, and a variety of different arrangements of the weights may have place which will produce the equilibrium required: but this cannot happen with regard to the pressure, for nothing is more obvious than that this must be fixed and determinate.

In the next sentence, the author asserts that, if the weight coincides with the centre of gravity of the plane, each prop will then bear an equal weight: but on what principle, we would ask, does this equality depend? for the equation is still alike indeterminate; and we have no doubt that, if any reason can be assigned for the equality in the latter case, the same will involve some condition that will render the question determinate in the former. The conception of the problem is extremely simple, and we can imagine cases in which the correct solution of it would be useful: we therefore recommend it to the attention of some of the author's students.

In the above remarks, we have ventured to indicate an error which must be attributed to the author having overlooked some condition that would render the problem determinate; we are now about to bring a charge against him of a directly opposite kind: that is to say, in which the principal formula is established, and the limitation of it accomplished, by the assumption of conditions which are too vague of themselves to justify their adoption. We allude here to article 176., in which Professor P. treats of the application of the strength of animals, and the relation which has place between their velocity and their power of overcoming a resistance.

'The strength of men, and of all animals, is most powerful when directed against a resistance that is at rest: when the resistance is overcome, and when the animal is in motion, its force is diminished; lastly, with a certain velocity, the animal can do no work, and can only keep up the motion of its own body.

'A formula, having the three properties just mentioned, will afford an approximation to the law of animal force. Let P be the weight which the animal exerting itself to the utmost, or at a *dead pull*, is just able to overcome; W any other weight with which it is actually loaded; and v the velocity with which it moves when so loaded; c the velocity at which the power of drawing or carrying a load entirely ceases; then $W = P\left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right)$ is an equation that has all the three conditions mentioned above.

'Not only, however, has the formula $P\left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right)$ these conditions, but the square of it has the same, or, indeed, any function of it which vanishes when $1 - \frac{v}{c}$ vanishes, that is, when $v = c$. We are left, then, at liberty to choose any of these functions, and would assume the formula above as the simplest, if another condition did not seem necessary to be included. It is certain, that in all cases, when v approaches to c, or when the speed becomes great, a small variation in the weight is accompanied with a great variation in the velocity. The simplest formula that corresponds to this condition is, when $1 - \frac{v}{c}$ is raised to the square.'

From this latter consideration, the author deduces his ultimate formula,

$$W = P\left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right)^2,$$

and on this he afterward remarks;

'A formula for expressing the law of animal action was first proposed by Euler, in a Dissertation on the Force of Oars. *Mém. Acad. de Berlin*, 1747. That which he employed was $W = P\left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)$, different from both those we have mentioned, but a function of the first, and one that becomes 0, when $v = c$. Euler, however, changed this to another, *Mém. Acad. de Berlin*, 1752, and *Nov. Com. Petrop.* viii. p. 244., the same that we have adopted. He appears to have done so merely on account of the analogy thus preserved between the action of animals and of fluids. The physical fact mentioned above is a better reason for the preference.'

Now here we must beg to differ entirely from Mr. Playfair. We think that the 'physical fact mentioned above' by no means justifies the assumption of the particular form given to the function in question; because there are, or may be found, an indefinite number of similar functions, which, as far as the simple *physical fact* is concerned, might equally answer the condition, while the analogy traced by Euler, although not actually convincing, is much more satisfactory: for without this or some other principle to direct our determination, we should be wholly at a loss to know which we were to select of the indefinite number of formulæ that answer the conditions. We might, indeed, with equal propriety assume an equation to a curve from a mere consideration of the circumstances under which its ordinates become nascent or evanescent.

We have one other observation to make, which relates to the references to the works of other authors. We suspect that these are not always judicious; that is, the reader is very frequently referred to foreign and scarce publications, when he might with equal propriety, and with much more convenience, have been directed to consult some English writer. It is the folly of pretenders to make numerous references to scarce books, which perhaps they have never read or even never seen, merely for the purpose of *appearing* learned: but, as the author of these 'Outlines' stands far above such an imputation, what is it that induces him so frequently to appeal to works which are with great difficulty to be procured, and to omit the mention of those which might be consulted with convenience? Is it that, in his partiality for foreign writers, he will not condescend to know what has been written by his own countrymen?—Let us take, for an example, articles 222. and 223.

'222. A body may begin to revolve on any line as an axis, that passes through its centre of gravity, but it will not continue to revolve permanently about that axis, unless the opposite centrifugal forces exactly balance one another.

'A homogeneous sphere may revolve permanently on any diameter, because the opposite parts of the solid, being in every direction equal and similar, the opposite centrifugal forces must be equal; so that no force tends to change the position of the axes.

'A homogeneous cylinder may revolve permanently about the line which is its geometric axis. It may also revolve permanently about any line that bisects that axis at right angles; but it can revolve permanently about no other line, as the centrifugal forces cannot be equal. The same is true with respect to all solids of revolution.

'223. In every body, however irregular, there are three axes of permanent rotation, at right angles to one another, on any one of which, when the body revolves, the opposite centrifugal forces exactly balance one another. These are called the Principal Axes of Rotation.

'This singular theorem was first proposed by Segner in 1755, and first demonstrated by Albert Euler, in a *Mémoire* crowned at Paris in 1760. Leon. Euler has also given a demonstration of it in his treatise *de Motu Corporum rigidorum, prob.* 27. See also Frisius, *de Rotatione Corporum quorumcunque, theorema* vii. *ubi supra*, p. 194.

'These three axes have also this remarkable property, that the momentum of inertia with respect to any of them is either a maximum or a minimum, that is, is either greater or less than if the body revolved about any other axis. Leon. Euler, *ubi supra.* The momentum of inertia has already been defined to be the product of every particle into the square of its distance from the axis of rotation.'

A student would naturally infer, from these quotations, that the subject had not been treated by any English writer; yet, if he turns to Landen's Mathematical Memoirs, he will find not only an elegant investigation of the theorems in question, but a considerable extension given to them beyond that which occurs either in Frisi or in the memoirs of Albert or Leonard Euler.

From the heads stated by Professor Playfair, we might also be led to conclude, (and we should not be undeceived by looking to the authors whom he has quoted,) that the sphere was the only body in which every axis was a permanent axis of rotation: but Landen has shewn that there are *various* solids which, under certain proportions of their parts, possess the same property, and some of which he has enumerated; viz.

" In the hemi-spheroid, when the height $= \frac{8r}{\sqrt{19}}$
the parabolic conoid, when the height $= r\sqrt{3}$
the double conoid, when the half-length $= r$
the cone, when the height $= vr$
the double cone, when half-length $= r\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$
the cylinder, whose length $= r\sqrt{3}$

" It is manifest that each of those bodies will (with respect to its own particles) undisturbedly revolve about any axis whatever passing through its centre of gravity, as well as a sphere; and it is obvious from what is done above, that other bodies (being solids of revolution or frustrum of such solids) of various forms, may be found, having the like property." [*Mathematical Memoirs*, by John Landen, Vol. i. p. 51.]

We must leave it to Professor Playfair to explain the omission of references to English works of so much merit and importance.

Volume II. is wholly occupied with propositions and investigations on Practical and Physical Astronomy; the former being divided into fourteen sections, and the latter into eight; viz. 1st. On the fixed Stars and the Circles of the Sphere; Atmospherical Refraction; the Figure of the Earth; Geographical Problems; Parallaxes; Motions of the Sun and Moon; Eclipses; the Rotation and Orbits of the Planets; the Secondary Planets, and the Ring of Saturn; on Comets; the Aberration of Light and the Nutation of the Earth's Axis; the Dimensions of the Solar System; and the Annual Parallax and Distance of the fixed Stars; with an Appendix on the Method of determining by Observation the constant Co-efficients in an assumed or given Function of a variable Quantity.

The plan here pursued is similar to that which is followed in Vol. I.; that is, all the principal propositions connected with the subject under discussion are arranged in the order in which they naturally occur, some with demonstrations annexed, and others with references to works in which such investigations are to be found: but we cannot discover any principle which the author has adopted with regard to what demonstrations are given and what are omitted; except that perhaps, on the whole, those which are retained are the most direct and simple; though this certainly is not always the case. As our limits, however, will not allow us to enter into details, we shall dismiss this part of the volume by merely observing that we were surprized that, in the Appendix, ('On the Determination by Observation of the constant Co-efficients in an assumed or given Function of a variable Quantity,') no illustration is exhibited of, nor any reference made to, the theorem of *minimum squares*, which is certainly as simple as that which was invented by Mayer; and it has been demonstrated by La Place to be the most accurate of any method that has yet been proposed for the solution of this problem. We think, therefore, that in justice to M. Legendre or M. Gauss, whichever of the two may be esteemed the inventor of it, the theorem should have found a place in this Appendix.

Part II., on Physical Astronomy, consists, as we have above stated, of eight sections; viz. On the Forces which retain the Planets in their Orbits; the Forces which disturb the elliptical Motion of the Planets; the Disturbance in the Motion of the primary Planets from their Action on each other;

the Disturbance in the Motion of the Satellites of Jupiter as arising from the same Cause; the Attraction of Spheres and Spheroids; the Figure of the Earth; Precession of the Equinoxes; an Explanation of the Phenomenon of the Tides, and of the Principle of universal Gravitation. If we do not mistake, this will be found the most valuable part of the two volumes; at least to those English students who are not familiar with the works of modern foreign authors. Yet even here we have noticed some few inaccuracies, not merely of the pen but in principle. Something of this sort occurs in the commencement of the third section; where, in speaking of the masses of the planets, the author says, 'The mass of Mercury has been estimated, from supposing his density and that of the Earth, to be inversely as their mean distances from the Sun. This law holds with respect to the Earth, Jupiter, and Saturn, *and analogy authorises the extension of it to Mercury.*' Against this remark, also, we must beg to enter our protest, and to maintain that analogy *does not* justify the extension. Of the seven larger planets of our system, the density of four at least, (that is, the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus,) may be considered as determined with tolerable accuracy; and the densities of Mars and Venus are not probably far from the truth. Now, if the densities of these six planets *all* followed the inverse law of their distances from the Sun, we should not object to the above assertion: but, if that law obtains only approximatively in three out of the six, and is totally irreconcileable with the other three, (which is really the case,) how can it be affirmed that analogy justifies the extension of it to Mercury? If it be necessary to form some estimate of the density of this planet for the solution of a general problem, let it appear in its proper character; viz. as an assumption that has been adopted in the absence of any mode of direct determination; and by no means let a student imbibe so false an idea of analogical deduction as this sentence is calculated to convey: for nothing, certainly, is more inimical to the acquirement of a correct taste, and a just estimate of the beauty, simplicity, and immutability of those truths deduced from legitimate mathematical investigations, which have always been considered as the exclusive and distinguishing characteristics of the exact sciences.

The conclusion drawn from this and the following section is highly curious and interesting, and we shall give it as a fair specimen of the style and manner of the whole performance:

'One general result of these investigations is, that both in the system of primary and secondary planets, two elements of every orbit remain secure against all disturbance; the *mean distance*, and the *mean motion*, or, which is the same, the transverse axis of the orbit, and the time of the planet's revolution. Another result is, that all the inequalities in the planetary motions are periodical, and observe such laws that each of them, after a certain time, runs through the same series of changes.

' Every inequality is expressed by terms of the form $A \sin n t$ or $A \cos n t$; where A is a constant co-efficient, and n a certain multiplier of t the time, so that $n t$ is an arch of a circle, which increases proportionally to the time. Now, though $n t$ is thus capable of indefinite increase, since $\sin n t$ never can exceed the radius or 1, the maximum of the inequality is A. Accordingly, the value of the term $A \sin n t$ first increases from 0 to A, and then decreases from A to 0; after which it becomes negative, extends to $= - A$, and passes from thence to 0 again; the period of all those changes depending on n the multiplier of t.

' If into the value of any of the inequalities, a term of the form, $A \tan nt$, $\frac{A}{\sin n t}$, or of the form $A \times nt$, were to enter, the inequality so expressed would continually increase, and the order of the system might finally be displayed.

' La Grange and La Place, in demonstrating that no such terms as these last can enter into the expression of the disturbances of the planets, made known one of the most important truths in physical astronomy. They proved, that the system is stable; that it does not involve any principle of destruction in itself, but is calculated to endure for ever, unless the action of an external power is introduced.

' This accurate compensation of the inequalities of the planetary motions depends on three conditions, belonging to the primitive and original constitution of the system:

' I. That the excentricities of the orbits are all inconsiderable, or contained within very narrow limits:

' II. That the planets all move in the same direction, as both primary and secondary do, from west to east:

' III. That the planes of their orbits are but little inclined to one another.

' But for these three conditions, terms of the kind mentioned above would come into the expression of the inequalities, which might therefore increase without limit.

These three conditions do not *necessarily* arise out of the nature of motion or of gravitation, or from the action of any physical cause with which we are acquainted. Neither can they be considered as arising from chance; for the probability is almost infinite to one, that, without a cause particularly directed to that object, such a conformity could not have arisen in the motions of thirty-one different bodies scattered over such a vast extent.

' The only explanation, therefore, that remains, is, *that all this is the work of intelligence and design, directing the original constitution of the system, and impressing such motions on the parts as were calculated to give stability to the whole.*'

We must now draw to a conclusion our remarks on this work, which we have examined with attention and criticized with freedom, but, we trust, with candour. Many of the observations which we have made would not have appeared in reviewing the production of an author of less pretensions than Professor Playfair, because the errors which we have stated would not have been of so much importance. We have not enumerated, though we have noticed, several typographical faults: but a degree of carelessness is observable in the spelling of proper names which we cannot pass over in silence. The following are written differently in different pages, and some of them in the same page: *Shuckborough* and *Shuckburgh*; *Attwood* and *Atwood*; *Herschel and Herschell*; *Bernoulli* and *Bernouilli*; *Wargenten* and *Wargentin*; *Frisius* and *Frisi*: *Robin* and *Robins*; while *Horsley* is written *Horsely*; *Brinckly*, *Brincly*; *Burckhardt*, *Burkhardt*, &c. The correction of these inaccuracies will not, we hope, be deemed undeserving of the author's attention in any future edition.

Art. IX. *A Vindication of the Magistrates acting in and for the Tower Division*, from the Charges contained in a printed Work, entitled, "The Report of the Committee on the State of the Police of the Metropolis; together with the Minutes of Evidence taken before a Committee of the House of Commons." By Thomas Thirlwall, M. A. Rector of Bowers Gifford, Essex, and Magistrate for the Counties of Middlesex and Essex. 8vo. pp. 348. 9s. Boards. J. M. Richardson. 1817.

Art. X. *A Refutation of the Rev. Thomas Thirlwall's "Vindication of the Magistrates acting in and for the Tower Division."* By J. T. B. Beaumont, Esq. F.A.S. a Magistrate for Middlesex and for Westminster, and Author of a Letter to Lord Sidmouth, showing the extreme Injustice of the present System of Public-House Licensing. 8vo. pp. 73. 2s. J. Richardson.

Art. XI. *An Answer to Mr. Beaumont's Refutation of the Rev. Thomas Thirlwall's Vindication, &c.* By Thomas Thirlwall, M. A. 8vo. pp. 32. 1s. J. M. Richardson.

The Report from the Police Committee, containing in one part of it the charges of which the first of these tracts attempts a refutation, was noticed in our numbers for October, November, and December last; and we then entered rather at large into the subject here discussed. We therefore deem it our duty now to examine how far the reverend author of the Vindication before us has succeeded in his object. The principal charge, from which Mr. T. attempts to vindicate his brethren and himself, is "that in granting or withholding their licences, the magistrates, without regard to individual owners, give an exclusive preference to some brewers, and more particularly to the house of Hanbury and Co." He denies that any such preference exists, and brings under his consideration the cases which were produced to prove it. The first is Stocker's case, which is two-fold; that part of it, which charges Mr. Merceron, the landlord, with 'preventing his tenant from renewing his licence, for refusing to give up the house at the end of the lease,' does not properly come under this head, though it is here considered, because it conveys a general charge against the magistrates. The quotation is in Mr. Thirlwall's own words, which he uses as a justification of the magistrates: but, granting even that they convey correctly the sense of the evidence, they would have just the contrary operation, and would prove that the magistrates were influenced in their decision by private feelings and not by public motives, since it is not pretended that any complaint lay against the tenant, who had been a licenced victualler nearly sixteen years. On referring to the minutes of the evidence, however, we find that, so far from the cause being the refusal to give up the house at the end of the lease, it appears that Mr. Merceron had actually agreed that Stocker should continue in the house, — that for the first year after his lease had expired the licence was continued to him, — and that it was denied in the second year, because, after such agreement for a renewal, he was desired by Mr. Merceron to give up the house to another man, which he refused to do. It appears, also, that the person to whom he was thus solicited to give up the house procured a licence for a new house at the distance only of about five doors. If this be not a case in which undue influence is apparent, we know not how any can be proved.

The other part of the charge relative to Stocker is that, having purchased the lease of a house on Bethnal-green, he was told afterward by Mr. Merceron that, unless he paid 100l. to the ground-landlord, (Mr. Whitling, stated to be the surveyor for Hanbury's brewhouse,) for his interest for the licence, he could do nothing; and Stocker accordingly did not apply. Mr. Thirlwall meets this charge by a suggestion that Whitling might have a just claim, and by an assertion that the magistrates are not criminated because no application was made. The former circumstance has no connection with the real question, and the latter is certainly true with regard to the body of magistrates: but Mr. Merceron is not so clearly

acquitted;

acquitted: and a connection is evidently shewn between him and Mr. Whitling, with a determination on his part to oppose the licence if the demand of the latter was not fulfilled. That the tenant did not deem it worth his while even to make an application for the licence proves also, but too clearly, the impression that prevailed in the district relative to the grounds of some of the decisions. Mr. Thirlwall attempts to throw discredit on Stocker's evidence, because he asserts a fact which is contradicted by one Simpson: but the equivocating testimony of the latter is falsified by other witnesses besides Stocker. A subsequent page contains another version of these facts, in which a charge is made that in Stocker's evidence one word has been substituted for another, and that a part of his answers has been omitted by the Committee. This is all asserted on the authority of Stocker himself, whose testimony the reverend vindicator had previously attempted to invalidate: but the insinuation is unworthy of credit, and proves only that Stocker, for some reason not apparent, now regrets that he said so much before the Committee.

Huxen's case comes next. After having "strained every nerve" for six years to obtain a licence for a house which he had built, this person was at last recommended to apply to Hanbury and Co., who agreed to try what they could do, on having a lease for 21 years of the premises; they covenanting to grant him an under-lease, with a condition "to deal with them." Still the house was not licenced, nor even when Huxen mortgaged the premises to them for 250l. Soon afterward they threatened to sell the house, and at last he was obliged to let them have it for 700l. Only *two months* after the purchase was concluded, it was licenced! Allowing Mr. Thirlwall the benefit of all that he says on this affair, it will do no more than clear Messrs. Hanbury from the charge made against their character, with which we have no concern: but the case, as it affects the magistrates, is still the same. The licence was refused for eight years while the house was in Huxen's possession, and as soon as it was purchased by Messrs. Hanbury the boon was granted. Mr. Thirlwall argues that, as the house was not licenced when the agreement was settled and the mortgage-money advanced by Messrs. Hanbury, the inference to be drawn is that the object was afterward attained from other causes than their supposed influence. So it would be, were it proved, which it is not, that Messrs. H. had exerted their influence and failed. Mr. T. accordingly asserts as the cause of its being licenced that, in the same year, a large increase of inhabitants had taken place since the previous application; and that the house has drawn *ever since it was licenced*

19 butts and a half per month. A good average-draught is from 7 to 9 butts per month, and it is therefore impossible to suppose that such an increase could have occurred so suddenly in a neighbourhood which, in the previous year, did not possess a sufficient number of inhabitants to justify the grant of a licence; and the assertion of Mr. T. consequently proves the reverse of that which he intends it should evince.

Mr. Simpson's case is perfectly clear. He tried during four years for a licence, without effect. He then succeeded, and, though a haberdasher in Shoreditch, had a licence granted to him, and he afterward put the house into Messrs. Hanburys' trade. His very suspicious testimony was designed to persuade the Committee that this was a pure act of choice: but Mr. Gifford afterward proves that, in the lease to the tenant, is a clause compelling him to buy his beer of Messrs. Hanbury and Co. for 14 years. Who can fail to draw the conclusion?

The next is the case of Mr. Harrison, who re-built a house at the expence of 2000l., and was refused a licence: in the following year, he entered into an engagement that Messrs. Hanbury and Co. should serve the house for seven years, and he then gained a licence. Mr. T. thinks that he deadened the effect of this evidence by proving that the licence was at first opposed by Mr. Merceron, and by attributing the success on the second application to his (Mr. T.'s) own appeal, in consideration of some circumstances of hardship: but does he not see that, as the engagement with Messrs. Hanbury was evidently made *subsequent* to the first refusal, the inference to be drawn is strongly against his argument?

As to the case of Crush, it certainly does not directly implicate the body of magistrates; it appears only that Messrs. Hanbury refused the house, and that Crush did not obtain the licence. The message from Mr. Jackson (the magistrate) to Mr. Aveling was adduced by us to shew the connection between the magistrates and the brewers. Mr. Thirlwall asserts that 'Mr. Jackson never used such language. He never, as he says, could be such a fool as to commit himself by a verbal message. Mr. Aveling never received such a message.' It is difficult, however, to suppose that no foundation exists for Crush's evidence.

On a due consideration of all Mr. Thirwall's facts and arguments, we are not satisfied that this charge against the magistrates of the Tower Hamlets division is unfounded. It appears to us, indeed, that it was not his primary object to *clear* them, but that his book was published chiefly with a view to attack Mr. Beaumont; against whom, as we observed in a former article, both he and his brethren have an obvious prejudice. We know nothing either of Mr. Beaumont or of his antagonist, or of any of the facts on which that prejudice is founded, otherwise than from the statements before the public; and, after a careful perusal of them, we remain of the opinion which we before expressed, that Mr. Beaumont has satisfactorily cleared himself. Mr. Thirlwall has not met the charge fairly; he professes to 'exhibit in one connected view the whole of the evidence as far as concerns the present important subject:' but, though he inserts much irrelevant matter from Mr. Beaumont's evidence for the purpose of abusing it, he entirely omits the very strong deposition given on the matter in question by Mr. Gifford, to whom he cannot have the same objection that is pretended to exist against the former gentleman. The testimony of Mr. William Morgan also is not inserted, though it conveys a direct charge of a similar nature.

We are happy to see that the Committee has resumed its labours. An opportunity will be thus afforded either for removing or confirming the impression which evidently exists very generally in this division, that the duties of the magistracy are not properly exercised; — and, in the latter case, we trust that some steps will be immediately taken to remedy an evil so discreditable to the character of the Police, and so injurious to the individuals who are subject to it.

The remainder of Mr. Thirlwall's book is principally occupied in the discussion of charges which bear personally on Mr. Beaumont, who confines himself to the refutation of them in his pamphlet, parts of which are again noticed in Mr. Thirlwall's 'Answer.' These charges are not of a nature to interest our readers: but we cannot conclude our remarks without hinting to the reverend author of the Vindication, that the cause which he advocates receives no assistance, and that his clerical character suffers degradation, by the personal abuse and the vulgar and unchristian rancour which too frequently disgrace his pages.

Art. XII. *Catalogue Raisonné*, &c.; *i. e.* A Descriptive Catalogue of Diamonds, in the Cabinet of Sir Abraham Hume, Bart. M.P. By the Count de Bournon. With Plates. 4to. pp. 53. 18s. Boards. Murray. 1815.

Sir A. Hume's fine collection of diamonds, to which this catalogue refers, is truly precious in the estimation of the mineralogist, on account of the great variety which it exhibits of native specimens, characterized by numerous modifications of crystalline forms. Such a treasure was worthy of being described by the late Count de Bournon, who so essentially contributed to its formation and arrangement, and to whose care the superintendence of it was intrusted for a series of years: while the Count's own excellent assortment of specimens in the same department, and his familiar acquaintance with those which adorned the Grevillian collection, combined with his zeal and unwearied exertions in the prosecution of crystallography, eminently qualified him for the performance of a task of which these few but interesting pages exhibit the record. Immature as his sketch avowedly is, it still conveys no ordinary portion of new information, and can scarcely fail to stimulate the investigations of those who may enjoy similar opportunities of observation. While chemistry has succeeded in revealing the real nature of the diamond, mineralogy, previously to the publication before us, had assigned few of the many forms of which it is susceptible.

As the author dissents, in one or two doctrinal points, from the Abbé Haüy, he thus candidly states the reasons which induced him to differ in opinion from that celebrated crystallographer:

'The theory of the regular octaedron which admits the regular tetraedron as the integral molecule of the substances which assume the solid for their primitive form, always appeared to me difficult to admit. According to this theory, the substance to which it was applied would contain a double proportion of vacuity to solidity, whereas in the crystalline theory of other minerals having either a rhomboid or a prism for their primitive form, an *obligatory* vacuity, so considerable, and independent of the theory which places the molecules of bodies not absolutely in contact with each other, but separate, can in no case be supposed to exist. If, according to this reasoning, the carbonate and fluate of lime, being both composed of the same earth, but combined with a different acid, and the molecules of the carbonate of lime fitting each other perfectly on the whole of their surface, without even leaving occasion to suppose any vacuity between them, it was required to calculate the specific gravity of the fluoric acid, its weight would unavoidably be found very nearly equal to that of mercury, which, doubtless, would be considered as impossible.

'According to this same theory, the surface of all mineral substances which have the octaedron for their primitive form would be made up of small equilateral triangles, alternately void and full; the one belonging to one of the faces of the solid tetraedrons, and the other to one of the faces of the void octaedrons. In these openings or voids, the planes forming their partitions would be in an inclined position, deviating from the axis which would pass through the middle of the void space, in the same proportion as they should deviate from the surface of the substance; a form, most assuredly, the best adapted for absorbing the light which would fall on the empty space within, or fittest for reflecting on the surface of the body the smallest possible portion of the rays of light which would strike upon it. That construction, therefore, which, by its nature, would absorb the moiety, nearly, of the light falling on the surface of the bodies to which it belongs, would be that in which the lustre produced by the simple reflection of light is the most vivid, namely, the diamond: a conclusion no less improbable than the other.

'If, on the other hand, we observe the construction which, according to this theory, ought to be that belonging to every mineral substance whose primitive form is octaedral, we shall see that the regular tetraedrons which would then form their integral molecules, would have no other points of cohesion between them than at their edges, or on an infinitely narrow surface, which power must consequently be extremely feeble. The result of this would be, that, whilst among the substances in which the power of cohesion extends itself over the entire surface of the molecules, we should meet with those in which the power of cohesion between their integral molecules is the weakest; those substances in which that power between the integral molecules is the most considerable, such as the diamond, spinel, &c., would be met with among those where the weakest cohesion would naturally be expected to be found: this also appears to me to be quite impossible.

'These considerations tended much to create doubt in my mind respecting the regular tetraedron being the form of the integral molecule of the regular octaedron. These doubts, in fact, existed, until examining one day, with considerable attention, some crystals of fluate of lime, from Cornwall, in regular octaedrons, perfectly well defined; I perceived on some of them very sensible indications of natural joints passing through their edges. I then became thoroughly persuaded that, in point of fact, the integral molecule of the regular octaedron could not possibly be the regular tetraedron; but, at the same time, I confess that, with all the researches I have since made, I have not been able to satisfy myself respecting the form of this molecule.'

Subsequent and close examination of the crystalline forms of the diamond not only confirmed the author in these sentiments, but convinced him of the risk to which we are exposed of introducing error into science, by indulging in a spirit of precipitate generalization.

The table of the crystalline forms, prefixed to the catalogue, contains 20 modifications of the primitive crystal, of which the combinations afford 72 others; and it is extremely probable that these 92 by no means exhaust the subject.

Of the hundred and seven articles particularized in the catalogue, only six do not belong to Sir Abraham Hume's collection;

collection: but they have been very properly inserted, with a view to complete all that is at present known of the crystallization of the diamond. Among a few of the more rare or interesting samples, we may notice the following.

No. 1. is a regular octaedron, which appears to have been actually formed in its matrix, and not inclosed by it accidentally. — 4. Large and superb, perfectly transparent, of a light straw-colour, with the planes extremely smooth, and indicating the passage, in a very advanced state, of the regular octaedron to the acute rhomboid of 60° and 120°. — 6. A large macled specimen, of a very fine water, and rare on account both of its form and its perfection. — 13. A large dodecaedral diamond, of a fine transparency, and of a yellow-brown hue.— 33. A large and scarce variety, with a considerable degree of superficial roughness, and in which the planes of two triedral pyramids unite in such a manner as to occasion the disappearance of the six other planes of the dodecaedron. — 40. A large, fine white, and perfect variety of the octaedron, which passes into the rhomboid of 60° and 120°. — 45. A diamond with 48 triangular facets. - 52. 'A very perfect transparent dodecaedral diamond, the planes of which are divided into two, according to their small as well as to their large diagonal, but their faces are all rounded in consequence of the crystallization having proceeded successively by a great number of retirements in the direction of its two diagonals.'— 64. A small, strongly striated, very singular, and extremely scarce octaedral variety, in which each of the edges is replaced by a plane. — 81. A dodecaedron, with rhombic planes, finely illustrative of the formation of inward angles. — 98. A very pure, fine white-coloured, and magnificent diamond, of a perfectly regular shape, with inward angles obviously resulting from no species of macle, but produced directly by crystallization.

The text is admirably illustrated by the plates; and an English version, from which we have borrowed our extracts, is executed on a similar type and paper, though published separately. As this translation comes from the pen of Sir Abraham Hume, the English reader may confide in its accuracy. The Count de Bournon seems to have contemplated a more extensive and systematic work on the crystallization of the diamond in general: but, alas! his active and scrutinizing intellect has closed its sublunary exertions; and his writings alone remain to attest the acuteness of his observation, and a vigorous perseverance of research which even misfortune could not abate.

Art. XIII. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Huntingdon,* at the primary Visitation for the Year 1815. With an Appendix and Notes. By the Rev. James Hook, LL.D. F.R.S. S.A. Archdeacon of Huntingdon, &c. 4to. pp. 99. 5s. Rivingtons. 1816.

While this very elaborate Charge bears honourable testimony to the talents and erudition of Dr. Hook, it also demonstrates the zeal with which he entered on the office of Archdeacon, to which he had been recently advanced. New situations frequently generate new feelings, and one step more in the ladder of promotion often adds considerable intensity to the desire for some higher elevation. Zeal, indeed, will sometimes kindle where this desire does not exist, but will more often flame where it does. In both cases, however, it is very apt to overstep the line of moderation, and to lose sight of the pole-star of candor. We would be far from supposing that any sordid motives have had the smallest share in the zeal which Archdeacon Hook has displayed in the present charge against Calvinists, Unitarians, and those whom he denominates *Liberalists*, who, in conjunction with the Bible-Society, have incurred his determined hostility: but zeal is too often a blind guide, and therefore it is seldom "according to knowledge," or in unison with candor. Hence we are inclined to hope that neither the Bible-Society nor the other objects of Dr. Hook's vehement opposition merit the harsh treatment which they have experienced in these pages; and that they will be found to have numerous claims to regard which the Archdeacon has overlooked, but which a more diffusive charity, that thinks no evil, could not fail to have discerned.

We have said that this Charge is elaborate: but it is also often inflated into verbose and angry declamation, of which the following specimen occurs at the commencement:

> 'We have lived in times, distinguished from all others by the confusions and calamities, by the wars, bloodshed, and revolutions, which Almighty God hath permitted to be inflicted upon an apostate world. These, in magnitude, extent, and duration, are, I believe, unparalleled! Reverses, as you well know, the most stupendous, downfalls the most precipitate, have baffled all foresight, all political sagacity, and in the unfathomable designs of the Almighty have levelled folly and wisdom. Wild passions and perverted opinions and sensual indulgence have been the precursors and concomitants of these mighty movements.'

In this passage, and throughout the greater part of the Charge, we mark an air of dignity and importance, which is not a little at variance with the easy and unaffected simplicity of diction that is best adapted to compositions of the present kind; in which a devout earnestness is more likely to impress the mind than all the futile parade of a tumid phraseology.

Though we agree with some of the Archdeacon's remarks on the vicious tendency of antinomianism, yet, when he says, p. 4., that 'the principle has a very deep foundation in the fallen nature of man,' does he not furnish the strongest excuse for the doctrine itself which can be devised: for how can those persons avoid the taint of antinomianism whose nature is corrupt from the womb? When he talks of the antinomian principle having its foundation in the fallen nature of man, he supposes that nature to have been so radically vitiated by the conduct of the first pair, as to have become a mass of incurable depravity: for must not that depravity be utterly incurable which, without any diminution, has pervaded all the generations of men, women, and children, from the transgression of Adam and Eve to the present day? and, if this depravity be thus irremediable, which follows even from the admission of the learned Archdeacon, on what principle of equity can he justify his attack on the antinomianism of the Calvinists?

It is not our present design to inquire whether in any or in what degree the Calvinistic doctrine has been embodied in the articles of the Church of England: but perhaps some of those persons, whom Dr. Hook has classed among the Antinomians, might retort the charge from the doctrines of their own communion on that of this reverend gentleman himself. The doctrine of the Church of England, as it is contained in the eleventh article, and in various parts of her service, is that we are viewed as righteous before God, not on account of "our own works or deservings" but on account of the merit of another; that moral works done without the requisite orthodox faith partake of the nature of sin; and (art. xviii.) that "those are to be had accursed that presume to say that every man shall be saved by the law or sect which he professeth, so that he be diligent to frame his life according to that law and the light of nature." Surely it does not require the eye of a lynx or the nose of a pointer to discover some slight infusion of an antinomian taint in the above dogmas of established orthodoxy.

Dr. Hook says, p. 5., 'Not only individuals but aggregate communities have admitted such a portion of this antinomian infection into the body of their doctrines, or into the administration of their discipline, as to counteract in a great measure the blessed effects of the Gospel upon the interests of mankind both here and hereafter.' Among the *aggregate communities* which have admitted more or less of this deleterious

terious antinomian infection into the body of their doctrines, the Archdeacon certainly does not intend to include the venerable establishment of which he is such a distinguished ornament: but still it would require the utmost exertion of his ingenuity and eloquence, to prove that the Thirty-nine Articles are entirely free from that demoralizing virus which he deplores. Morality can never be inculcated on right principles, or recommended with all the persuasive force of which it is susceptible, when it is represented as subordinate to certain formularies of belief, or as depending for its present efficacy and its final acceptance on some controverted point in theology. Where the great duties of truth, of justice, and of beneficence, are enforced as essentially conducive to the present and the future happiness of mankind, such an impression of their importance may be made on the mind as will conduce to their habitual observance. They will then be considered as of high and paramount obligation; they will not be viewed merely as secondary considerations, which is too much the case where they are merely employed to adorn the train of some theological position that stands in need of their support: but they will be regarded as points of primary magnitude and interest in the estimate of a reasonable being.

Some theological doctrines, which have made a prominent figure in other communions besides those of the churches of Geneva and Rome, have a strong tendency to relax the force of moral obligation, and to scatter perplexity and confusion over the whole region of ethics. Yet truth and falsehood, humanity and cruelty, are not matters of mere arbitrary convention, but have fixed and immutable lines of difference.—What should we think of a moral code which represented the purest and most beneficent virtues as owing all their claim to approbation, not to their motives or their effects, but to a reflection of splendor from some remote and foreign source? What is the first sentiment which rushes on the unsophisticated mind, when the most flagitious enormities are represented as transmuted into high moral qualities by the agonies of extraneous innocence? What could we say of the justice or the mercy of that government, which should condemn such a hero as the Duke of Wellington to a lingering death, in order to expiate the cowardice of all the recreants in the land; or which should sentence such a philanthropist as Howard to the rack or the gallows, as the fittest mode of effecting the moral purification of all the thieves and prostitutes in the empire? What motives to patriotic courage could be furnished by such an act as the first, or to a diffusive beneficence by the last? In fixing the criterion of right and wrong, we should never outrage the common sentiments of mankind; which will be found to merit more attention than all the mystic jargon of visionaries or polemics, to whatever party they may belong.

At p. 13. of his learned Charge, the Archdeacon commences a determined attack on the *liberality* of the present day, as tending, in his own language, 'to level all opinions and sentiments which have ever been professed in Christian societies.' 'Contrary to the whole tenor of experience,' he says, 'it is asserted by the *Liberalists*, if I may be allowed the expression, of the present day, that all these varieties are equally consistent with the practice of Christian virtue, with the integrity of the Christian character, with all the social and political relations in life, and with that which is of unspeakably higher importance, the eternal salvation of the souls of men.' How 'the whole tenor of *experience*' is to prove what modes of religious belief are incompatible with 'the eternal salvation of the souls of men,' we must leave the penetration of the Archdeacon to ascertain: but we confess ourselves willing to take our station in the rank of these liberalists, who have incurred the penalty of his animadversions; and, instead of considering that indifference to doctrinal opinions, which have no immediate connection with the practice of virtue and with a life of righteousness, as a characteristic of the present period that merits reprehension, we are rather inclined to view it as a cheering indication of an improved mode of thinking, on which too much praise cannot be bestowed. The bitter dissentions of polemics on ambiguous tenets and unimportant doctrines have lasted long enough, and been sufficiently efficacious in retarding the progress of intellectual illumination and universal benevolence: but, if a tolerant, enlightened, and truly Christian liberality, in questions of uncertain speculation, has lately made a considerable progress in this country, Dr. H. seems resolved that it shall not at least be his fault if more bigoted sentiments are not restored to their antient prevalence. At p. 55. we find the tolerant spirit of the times thus calumniated, with an equal disregard of charity and correctness; while deep regret is expressed for the repeal of a persecuting statute, which was long a disgrace to the code of English jurisprudence.

> 'Vice is without odium, and virtue without attraction, when viewed through the equalizing medium of what is called *liberality*; a term which, in its present application, has no fixed or determinate meaning, but which involves in its operation the confusion of all principles and the encouragement of all errors. A solemn act of the legislature has removed the veil which our ancestors considered

necessary to exclude from the public eye the licentiousness of blasphemy against the Son of God; and hence a learned and distinguished prelate has been libelled and arraigned for supporting the dignity of our Saviour in the discharge of one of his most important functions, against the Scripture-mutilations of the promoters and abettors of Socinianism.'

We shall not stay at present minutely to examine the objections of the Archdeacon to the Bible-Society: but we cannot be surprized at his dire hostility to that association, when we consider that it has been productive of sentiments of the most expansive kindness and most enlarged *liberality* among the most opposite species of religionists. When any other society, which Mr. Archdeacon Hook or his diocesan may happen to recommend, shall produce an aggregate of benefits equal to that which has been caused by the Bible-Society, we shall not refuse to bestow on it an equal share of praise: but, till that has been effected, the Bible-Society will command our exclusive and peculiar approbation, notwithstanding the obloquy with which it has been assailed.

Art. XIV. *Outlines of Mineralogy and Geology*, intended for the use of those who may desire to become acquainted with the Elements of those Sciences; especially of Young Persons. Illustrated by Four Plates. *Second Edition, revised and corrected.* To which is added an Outline of the Geology of England and Wales, with a Map and Section of the Strata. By William Phillips, Member of the Geological Society. 12mo. pp. 236. 8s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. 1816.

Art. XV. *An Elementary Introduction to the Knowledge of Mineralogy:* including some Account of Mineral Elements and Constituents; Explanations of Terms in Common Use; Brief Accounts of Minerals, and of the Places and Circumstances in which they are found. Designed for the Use of the Student. By William Phillips. 12mo. pp. 400. 8s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. 1816.

The introductory view of *Mineralogy* here exhibited is by far too compendious to be of much real benefit to the student: but some of the leading facts and doctrines relative to *Geology* are stated with perspicuity, and with a praise-worthy freedom from the trammels of theory. The modest author affects not to range beyond the humble but useful sphere of compilation; and the principal sources, from which he has avowedly derived his materials, are, Aikin's Chemical and Mineralogical Dictionary, Cuvier's Theory of the Earth, edited by Professor Jameson, and the Geognosy of the last-mentioned gentleman. Many other works 'were occasionally consulted, but were not made use of in a degree that seems to render their enumeration requisite.'

Mr. Phillips has studiously avoided all unnecessary recourse to technical phraseology; and, by conveying the principle of his favourite sciences in the form of Lectures, which were delivered gratuitously in the village of Tottenham to young persons of both sexes, he offers a sufficient apology for the familiar style of his illustrations, and for occasional repetitions. His references to the mining operations in Cornwall are impressed, we think, with the valuable character of personal observation. The plates exhibit a contrasted view of the comparative heights of the principal mountains, the forms of primitive crystals, a section of the *Brocken Mountain* in the Hartz, the disposition of some singular veins in the *Tin Croft* and *Pink* mines in Cornwall, and a small coloured map of the geology of England and Wales.

The favourable reception of the first edition of this little treatise induced Mr. P. to prepare a second and improved impression; in which, we are told,

> 'The principal addition that has been made is an outline of the Geology of England and Wales, with a Map, and Section of the Strata through the southern counties of England; which, concise and incomplete as it is, will be found, it is hoped, of some advantage. This may be had separately; but it is with regret that I do not find it equally possible to accommodate the purchasers of the first edition, in a separate form, with the various corrections and additions interspersed through this.'

Although the author appears to have maturely meditated on the most important parts of his subject, and to have clothed the results of scientific investigation in popular and intelligible language, yet some of his statements require revision or qualification. We had always understood that serpentine occurs in very considerable masses in Unst and Fetlar, but we can scarcely believe that these islands are absolutely composed of this material. At page 91. *Mont Perdu* is very unaccountably asserted to be the highest of the *Appennines.* A rather numerous list of humbler *slips* and *dislocations* might be produced: but they do not render the meaning doubtful or obscure.

In revising his *Outlines,* the author was led to depart from his original design of considerably extending that small treatise, and to select from the best authorities, for exhibition in a separate publication, short descriptions of mineral species, with indications of the places and circumstances in which they occur; divested, as much as he could divest it, of technical and scientific phraseology, and suited to the occasions not of the adept but of the learner. His *Elementary Introduction to Mineralogy* was accordingly produced; in which his principle of arrangement differs in some respects from those of all his precursors, and has been adopted with a view to the dependence of mineralogy on chemistry on the one hand, and to its intimate connection with geology on the other. It unfortunately happens, however, that substances of very dissimilar aspects are thus classed together, as *Egyptian jasper* and *tremolite*, *pyrope* and *potstone*, *schorl* and *clay-slate*, &c. Still our acquaintance with natural transitions in the mineral kingdom is yet too imperfect to enable us to apprehend that graduating system of the forms of inorganic matter, which probably pervades the globe; and most of the methods, which have been proposed to relieve the memory and facilitate the researches of the student, have their respective advantages and disadvantages. In general, indeed, the succession of the series is of less consequence than the accurate delineation of its members, and the selection of those signs and characters by which they may be most readily discriminated.

Mr. Phillips professedly aspires only at the humble merit of judicious compilation: but his personal opportunities, and the resources of his mineralogical cabinet, have occasionally suggested some interesting statements and remarks, which are well deserving of insertion in more profound publications. His descriptions are executed with greater precision than elegance: but, as they are seldom deficient in the essential qualities of fidelity and perspicuity, we can safely recommend them to the attention of the young mineralogist, before he encounters the perusal of more voluminous and scientific systems.

'Consistently with this intention, explanations of about one hundred terms commonly used in mineralogical description are given at the end of the introduction; which includes an enumeration of mineral elements and constituents, together with a brief view of their chemical characters, and remarks tending to shew their mineralogical and geological importance. The order in which the individual minerals have been described, and which is exhibited in the Table of Contents, was governed by an attention to the same objects.

'Thus siliceous minerals are first described, because it is estimated that silex forms the largest proportion of the oldest and most abundant primitive rocks: and all earthy minerals, of which silex is the largest ingredient, are arranged under that head; beginning, chemically, with silex in its purest form, and proceeding to such as consist of that and another earth, as silex and alumine, then to those consisting of silex and lime, &c., and afterwards to such minerals as are chiefly constituted of three or more earths, terminating with the most compound; and regarding the iron, manganese, &c. involved in many of them, only as accessary constituents. The other earthy minerals are proceeded with in like manner; arbitrarily selecting such as contain the rare earth glucine, and placing them under that head, except that the Gadolinite, which also contains the still more rare earth, Yttria, is placed under the latter. In regard to metalliferous minerals, the rules [which] I had prescribed for the order of description could not always be adhered to without involving some absurdity; for instance, in the ore called White Silver, that metal is an ingredient, according to one analysis by Klaproth, in the proportion only of about 2 per cent.; but it would have been altogether ridiculous to have placed a substance bearing the name of white silver among the ores of lead, to which, according to the proportions of its ingredients, it properly belongs.

'In order to avoid too greatly the appearance of a scientific work, every mineral has been described only under the name or names by which it is commonly distinguished in our own country. The synonyms may be found in Aikin's "Manual," and still more at large in the useful "Mineralogical Nomenclature" of Allan.'

During the process of reducing the more copious and systematical details of any department of knowlege to a condensed and elementary form, it is difficult completely to guard against occasional errors and omissions: but, in the present instance, they are far from numerous. A few species, as the *Diopside*, *Alalite*, *Grossular*, *Pyrénéite*, and *Rhœtizite*, appear to have been overlooked.—The annual amount of gold, imported from America, seems to have been considerably under-rated when set down at about 30,000 pounds weight; for Jameson, proceeding (we believe) on the calculations of Humboldt, estimates the total annual produce of this precious metal from the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in America at 45,580 poun[illegible] Troy, exclusively of what has been recently collected in North Carolina.—Platina is erroneously stated to be found *only* in certain districts of America; whereas it occurs in the grey silver ore of Guadalcanal, in Spain, where it is present in various proportions, from an almost imperceptible trace to ten per cent., and unalloyed with the four new metals which have been discovered in the American specimens.—Among the localities of the same metal, we find St. Domingo, Peru, and the neighbourhood of Carthagena, still retained; though, according to the latest and most accurate observations, it has not been found in any of those situations.—We should have preferred the term *Lievrite*, which consecrates the name of the discoverer of the species, to that of *Yenite*, which originated in the puerile conceit of associating a mineral appellation with the *battle of Yena!* Besides, *Rio Marino*, and *Cape Calamita*, where this rare substance occurs, are not in *Corsica*, but in the island of *Elba*, whence

Steffens adopts *Ilvaite*. — Although Mr. Phillips affirms that hornstone and bituminous shale have not been analyzed, Mr. Kirwan, if our recollection be accurate, submitted the former, as Klaproth did the latter, to chemical trial, and reported the respective results. — Of the chrysoberyl, we are told that 'a few specimens have been brought from Nerbschinsk in Siberia:' — but, though Werner and others hold the same language, Brochant, who is generally cautious, affixes to this locality a mark of interrogation; and Patrin, who enjoyed excellent opportunities of ascertaining the fact, very pointedly asserts the negative.

The occurrence, however, of some slight blemishes, or inaccuracies, cannot materially detract from the real merit of a performance which will, we doubt not, contribute its share to render the study of mineralogy accessible to different classes of readers.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR APRIL, 1817.

POETRY AND THE DRAMA.

Art. 16. *Frightened to Death!* a musical Farce, in Two Acts, as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-lane. By W. C. Oulton, Author of "All in good Humour;" "The Sleep Walker," &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. Simpkin and Marshall.

'Frightened to Death' seems a title adapted rather to a murderous tragedy than to a merry farce, which should have no other connection with killing than the wilful but frolicsome intent of making the auditors "die with laughter." Mr. Oulton's comical farce of "The Sleep-Walker," we recollect, had a tendency to this effect, and proved that the author had the faculty of Richard in murdering while he smiled, or rather while he made others smile. Whether the present production would be convicted (not *condemned*) on the same charge, we cannot determine, for we have not seen it acted, and slender are the materials which dramatic authors now commit to paper. We presume, they consider that the less matter there is to burthen the memory of the actor, the greater will be the scope for his wit and humour; on the same principle that the lightness of a garment displays the shape of the limbs, and allows them perfect ease and elasticity of motion.

The plot of this farce, of which the whole conduct is ridiculously absurd, consists in effecting the reform of a rake by making him fancy that he is dead; and a rather laughable scene occurs in which he reads his own epitaph, and hears the terrible threat that he shall be cut up by the surgeons. It may in representation be a lively nothing, but in perusing it we do not laugh sufficiently to stifle our growls at its violations of nature and probability.

Art. 17. *Essays in Rhyme, on Morals and Manners.* By Jane Taylor, Author of "Display, a Tale;" and one of the Authors of "Original Poems for Infant Minds," &c. 12mo. pp. 174. 6s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1816.

Whoever reads the works of the fair author of this little volume must feel in their own hearts, to use a homely phrase, that hers is *in the right place*, and must acknowlege that all her exertions have for their object the improvement of the hearts of her neighbours. To her talents in this respect, we have in former instances borne our willing testimony, and in the essays before us the same tendency is visible. They treat of Prejudice, Experience, Egotism, &c. with good moral effect, and in easy familiar rhyme; and, though we undoubtedly prefer Miss Taylor's prose, and think that the world will be of the same opinion, her verse is frequently not deficient in point or humour, to which latter quality she seems to have a natural inclination.

The following passage from the essay on 'Prejudice' is not a bad specimen of the author's general style:

'Besides this blind devotion to a sect,
Custom produces much the same effect.
Our desks with piles of controversy groan;
But still, alas! each party's with its own.
Each deems his logic must conviction bring,
If people would but read,—but there's the thing!
The sermons, pamphlets, papers, books, reviews,
That plead our own opinions, we peruse;
And these alone,—as though the plan had *been*
To rivet all our prejudices *in*.
'Tis really droll to see how people's shelves,
Go where you will, are labell'd like themselves.
Ask if your neighbour — he whose party tone,
Polemic, or political, is known,
Sees such a publication — naming one
That takes a diff'rent side, or sides with none;
And straight in flat uncomfortable-wise,
That damps all further mention, he replies,
"No, Sir, we do not see that work — I know
Its gen'ral views, — *we* take in so and so."
Thus each retains his notions, every one,
Thus they descend complete from sire to son;
And hence, the blind contempt so freely shown,
For every one's opinions but our own.'

When we read the third line, we thought that Miss T. was, alas! describing our study.

We may make one more quotation, on Egotism, which contains also a very true picture:

'Woe to themselves, and woe to small and great,
When two good egotists are *tête-à-tête!*

> A battle this, though not of swords, but tongues,
> And he the victor who has strongest lungs:
> Though, while most conquer by a *loud* attack,
> Some win the day by *persevering* clack.
> Too eager each in what himself recites,
> To see how little interest it invites,
> He takes th' attention that the other *shews*,
> For pleasure in the story or the *news*;
> Though judging by himself, he might have known,
> He is but waiting to begin his own,
> Watching some gap in the opponent's speech
> To force it in — like soldiers at a breach.'

These lines remind us of a story told, we think, by M. Dutens of the Abbé Raynal. He and the Abbé Gagliani were incessant talkers, and were invited to the house of a mutual friend, who wished to amuse himself by bringing them together. Gagliani began the conversation, engrossed it so thoroughly, and talked with such volubility, that Raynal could not find the least opening to introduce a word: but, turning towards his friend, he said in a low voice, "*S'il crache, il est perdu:*"— if he stops to spit, he is undone.

Art. 18. *The Sacrifice of Isabel: a* Poem. By Edward Quillinan, Esq. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1816.

At the beginning of this elegantly printed little volume, we are told of a 'lady and gentleman' (both, no doubt, of equally respectable connections,) who disembarked with a few domestics in a small island near the Isle of Elba, and were visited there in the year 1814 by Napoleon Bonaparte. The gentleman's story, as related by himself, forms the subject of the work; and we are apprized that in the recital, made to a brother, the gentleman betrayed at particular moments symptoms that almost indicated insanity. In consequence of this intimation, we expected to meet with something very *wild* in the poem, but on the contrary we found it quite *tame* enough for any purpose. We have the old story of a lady and two lovers; and one is wounded by the other in the presence of the fair, who ingeniously and obligingly sucks the poison from the wound. The novelty and delicacy of this incident certainly fitted it in a peculiar manner for adaptation to poetry.

The verses in question were written in the library of Lee Priory; and we do not deem them so good as those of the possessor of that hospitable retreat. Otherwise, we should regard it as rather a dangerous confession that a younger author has written his work in the study of an elder; — and particularly so when it is *incautiously* added in the dedication, 'These lines properly belong to you, *because* they were written in the library of Lee Priory.' A very pretty and very original passage follows, concerning the happiness of melancholy; which, 'as a poet,' Sir Egerton Brydges can 'well understand;' Sir E. B., that is, can understand 'how a mind accustomed to sorrowful impressions, whether from constitutional susceptibility or from incidental misfortune, can find a consolatory interest in the most mournful exercises of the imagination.'

As we do not think that any passage in the verse-part of the volume is more delicate and interesting than the above, we should be almost tempted to let it speak for itself, and speak alone: but, as we know that our readers must always wish to judge of poetry for themselves, we are solicitous, whenever our limits allow us, to afford them this gratification as largely as may be; and they shall not, even in the present case, be disappointed of their natural right and pleasure. — *Ecce signum!*

> ' " Cease, cease to chide," rejoin'd the lovely saint
> In mournful accent musically faint;
> " O do not chide thine Isabel's fond love,
> I hoped a happier destiny to prove.
> And sure all gentle souls with pity's tear
> The sacrifice of Isabel shall hear.
> Castilian Eleanor, her Edward's pride,
> This deed of yore with happier fortune tried.
> I knew, and know, I could not live a day,
> Or save my child, when thou wert snatch'd away.
> There was this one wild hope, to raise my heart;
> But 'tis the will of heaven that we should part.
> Thou yet must live: I charge thee seek not death;
> Scorn not the life for which I forfeit breath.
> Plant on my chosen grave our favorite flowers;
> My soul shall visit thee in moonlight hours.
> How dark it grows! yet I had more to tell.
> 'Tis gone. Come near — yet closer — Oh farewell!" '

We cannot do better than conclude with the author, and

> —— ' bid earth farewell,
> And welcome *Love, and Heaven,* and Isabel."

ARTS, &c.

Art. 19. *A Treatise on Canals and Reservoirs,* and the best Mode of designing and executing them; with Observations on the Rochdale, Leeds and Liverpool, and Huddersfield Canals, and a comparative View of them; and also on the Bridgewater, the Lancaster, and the Kennett and Avon Canals. Likewise Observations on the best Mode of Carding, Roving, Drawing, and Spinning all Kinds of Cotton Twist. Also Instructions for designing and building a Corn Mill, and how to grind upon the best Principle; with a new and simple Mode of preserving Grain from the Consequences of a wet or soft Harvest, and rendering useful Grain that has become foul and fusty; together with important Directions on public Drains. By John Sutcliffe, Civil Engineer. 8vo. pp. 413. 14s. Boards. Law and Whittaker, &c. 1816.

The observations which form the basis of this treatise are all of a practical kind; many of them relating to the expence of erecting certain machines, and others to the due adjustment of their several parts, their proportional magnitudes, the rates of revolution, &c. &c.: subjects with which we are not sufficiently acquainted to offer any opinion of the value of the performance in this point of view. We should have been glad to see some reasons advanced for the adoption of the particular dimensions, &c. so positively laid down by the author as the *ne plus ultrà* of perfection: broad assertion, without argumentation or demonstration, having little weight with minds accustomed to the rigor of scientific and geometrical deductions. We fear, however, that science and philosophy are estimated very cheaply by Mr. Sutcliffe; since at page 66. he informs us (in strangely incorrect composition) that the goods manufactured by a certain little simple machine, employed in spinning the drapery for *Solomon's Temple*, 'have remained (as far as we know) unrivalled for nearly three thousand years; and that, through all the revolutions of time, neither the sap of years nor the hands of violence have in the least diminished their excellences, which still remain unimpaired. *The utility of this machine, and that of the potter's wheel,* equally simple, though not quite so useful, *are doubtless the most ancient machinery in the world,* and have been a *thousand times more beneficial to society than all Newton's science and the more refined philosophy of the day!*' Having never been so fortunate as to see the original, or even a model, of *Solomon's spinning wheel,* we cannot clearly comprehend the comparison between this machine and Newton's laws of gravitation: but we hope it is very correct. Newton, however, is not the only useless hand that has intruded himself on the public notice, since it appears that

'For the last twenty years, gentlemen have gone through the nation, giving lectures upon the application of water, and also upon mechanics, philosophy, astronomy, &c. who have exhibited small models of water-wheels and steam-engines, by which they have pretended to shew the best mode of applying the powers of those two great agents of nature. By these paltry models, and the representations given of them, the public have been greatly misled; and large sums of money been expended to no purpose in making water-wheels after such imperfect models.

'I know of a number of good water-wheels, judiciously constructed, well speeded, and the water systematically applied, that some of these ingenious gentlemen have persuaded their owners were unfit for use, because, in their opinion, they moved too quick, and consumed too much water; which they were prevailed upon to reject, and make others according to their models.

'One of my friends was some time ago induced to take out one of his best water-wheels, (which worked his scribbling machinery) in expectation of having it replaced by another, upon a much better principle, which, unfortunately for him, possessed so little power as to compel him to reject it, and immediately to substitute a wheel, similar to that which had been taken out. This expence, my friend told me, amounted to upwards of four hundred pounds, and added, I have paid dear for my mechanical knowledge, but it will serve me for life, and I hope, the rest of my family. Another of my friends had one of these extraordinary wheels, which was to do every thing, but work miracles; when he had tried it not more than two days, such was his vexation and disappointment, that he instantly ordered it to be taken in pieces; this wheel cost nearly four hundred pounds. A third person had two water-wheels made upon this improper plan, in a very little time; but they were unmade in much less.

'These are the sad effects of representing mechanical power by small models; for, as I have before observed, there is no judging of the merit of any design unless the model is as large as the machine it represents is intended to be.'

Some truth may perhaps be contained in these assertions: but the perpetual sneering at science, which forms one of the most prominent features of this work, indicates a total want of scientific qualifications in the author; while his literary deficiencies are equally exemplified throughout it. If we admit that mathematics and philosophy are not the only requisites for making a complete engineer, we must contend that they are very essential ingredients in the composition; and we should have little confidence in the judgment of any one who treated them with marked contempt.

ASTRONOMY.

Art. 20. *A comprehensive Astronomical and Geographical Class-Book*, for the Use of Schools and private Families. By Margaret Bryan. 8vo. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

This volume consists of a *Preliminary*, or preface; a chapter containing an explanation of the solar system; one hundred problems, with their solutions, on the celestial and terrestrial globes: and one hundred without solutions, given as exercises, but of which the answers are found in the *Key*, or separate appendix to the work itself. How long it may employ a young lady to solve this course of problems, we are unable to judge: but we are convinced that, after the task has been performed, no knowlege adequate to it will have been acquired from this source. That the student may attain to a mechanical facility of solution we do not dispute; but will she be furnished with any rational ideas of the construction and the phænomena of the solar system? We are doubtful whether any person, who has for a moment considered the subject under this point of view, will be found to answer in the affirmative; and if in the negative, how much useful time is thus thrown away?—not to insist on what we really believe to be the case, that, instead of giving correct ideas, such exercises have a tendency to implant false conceptions, which it is afterward very difficult to eradicate. A few general problems, and illustrations by means of a pair of globes, are doubtless very proper: but the idea of making this a study, and working two or three hundred questions in this way, is certainly not judicious.

In justice to Mrs. Bryan, however, we ought to observe that, independently of the above general objections, we have none to urge against her mode of arrangement, and her execution of the practical part of the volume; although we cannot pass in silence some sentences of the introductory chapter. In the first place, the symbolical characters here given for the new planets are not those which are usually employed; and the year in which Vesta was discovered is incorrectly stated, that planet having been first observed in 1807, and not in 1804 as asserted by Mrs. B. Again, it is said that the limits of the distances of these bodies from the sun is between 160 and 300 millions of miles; whereas the nearest is 225, and the farthest only about 263 millions of miles distant from that luminary. In another place, their motion is said to resemble that of the comets; and, without specifying all the inaccuracies which we have observed in this chapter, we must remark that it is by far the worst part of the performance: in some measure justifying our assertion that a knowlege of the use of the globes has no necessary connection with, nor any tendency to convey, a correct idea of the system of the world.

Art. 21. *Practical Observations on Telescopes.* 12mo. pp. 114. 5s. Boards. Bagster.

We cannot more adequately explain the nature of this useful little performance than in the words of the author, who introduces himself to his readers by observing;

'Notwithstanding so much has been written on the theoretical part of astronomy, and so many treatises have appeared on that subject, I believe none of these astronomical grammars contain any rules for the management of the telescope; the application of which, to the greatest possible advantage, together with that of the respective magnifying powers, and their proportions to the size of the instrument, and the circumstances of the object to be observed, seem to me to have been less considered than the general appendages to the other instruments of the observatory. The intention of this work is, to afford such information, and to present the amateurs of astronomy with a few hints, which, I hope, will prove instructive and useful to them.

'The following remarks, the result of some years' observations, were originally written at the request of a particular friend; and though in a circle of partial friends they have received much commendation, and I have been repeatedly solicited to give them to the public, I certainly never should have consented to the publication, but that constant observation has convinced me, such a practical and unprejudiced treatise would be acceptable to astronomers.

'In the course of the last fifteen years, I have been in possession of every sort of telescope, and have seized every opportunity of ascertaining, experimentally, the peculiar powers of every description of reflecting as well as of refracting telescopes; and have purchased, not without a very considerable expense of both time and money, the knowledge of the facts herein related.

'And should the perusal of this little treatise, the fruit of these pursuits, afford any satisfactory intelligence, or be useful to the novice in optics and astronomy, by directing him in the choice, and assisting him in the use, of his instruments; the sacrifices I have made to obtain it will, undoubtedly, become a source of much satisfaction to me, and my labours will be overpaid.'

We

We have no hesitation in stating it as our opinion that, as far as utility has been the object of the author's ambition, it has been completely attained; and we hold him intitled to the thanks of every admirer of astronomical science, for the disinterested manner in which he has endeavoured to communicate, to novices in astronomy, that knowlege which he has obtained with much labour, and at a very considerable pecuniary expence. The purchase of a good telescope is to many persons an object of some consideration; and few are so fortunately circumstanced as to afford to buy several in order to form comparisons and thence to select the best. The author of these Practical Observations appears to be one of those "happy few;" he has acquired, at great cost, a considerable stock of valuable information; and he has, in a pleasing unaffected style, placed it within the reach of those who may not have equal means of obtaining knowlege from actual practice.

It is not one of the least useful objects of this publication to convince its readers, that large and expensive instruments are not so necessary for the purposes of astronomical observation as persons generally imagine; and that the most important discoveries, made within a few years by Dr. Herschel, have not resulted from the magnitude of his telescopes, but from his matchless perseverance as an observer.

'Dr. Herschel's first catalogue of double stars was made with a Newtonian telescope of not quite seven feet focus, and with only four inches and a half aperture, charged with a power of 222. The second catalogue was likewise made with a telescope of similar construction, but with an object metal of six inches and a quarter diameter, and magnifying 227 times. The third was composed with the same instrument, excepting the eye-glass, which was changed for one which gave the telescope a magnifying power of 460. This, the Doctor says, was much superior to that of 227 in detecting excessively small stars, and those which are very near to large ones.'

Other facts are stated, to prove that much may be accomplished with instruments of moderate magnitude; and that the idea of the necessity of extremely large telescopes, and great magnifying powers, is a vulgar error which cannot be too soon exploded. The greatest power that a Gregorian will bear for day-purposes, without overbalancing its illuminating properties, is here stated to be equal to, or expressed by, the product of the diameter (in inches, we suppose,) of the large speculum multiplied by 20; and for planetary observations by 30 or 40; varying more or less according to the figure and reflective powers of the specula, particularly the smaller one. In achromatic telescopes, the proper powers for the same purposes will be found by multiplying the diameter of the object-glass by 30 and 50.

We feel persuaded that few persons, who take any pleasure in astronomical observations, will remain unprovided with this beneficial monitor; and we shall therefore only farther select, as a specimen of the author's manner, a short abstract relative to spectacles, which may be advantageous to those of our readers who may not want to consult the work for *telescopical* information.

'With a hope the relation may be of some use to posterity, I will take this opportunity of offering a few observations on spectacles: and as I am fondest of discoursing on subjects which I fancy I understand, and writing from my own experience, being a short-sighted mortal myself, I will begin with some advice to those who are unfortunately what is commonly called near-sighted, and narrate the history of my own case of spectacles.

'When I first discovered that I could not discern distant objects as distinctly as people who have common eyes usually do, I purchased a concave eye-glass, No. 2. After using it some little time, I accidentally looked through a concave No. 3., and found my vision much clearer and sharper with this, than with No. 2., and had my spectacles glassed with No. 3., which appeared to afford the eye as much assistance as it could receive: however, after using No. 3. a few months, I chanced to look through No. 4., and immediately found the same increase of sharpness, &c. I perceived before when I had been using No. 2., and first saw through No. 3.: concluding I had not yet got glasses sufficiently concave, I procured No. 4., which soon became no more stimulus to the optic nerve than its predecessors, Nos. 2. and 3., had been. Thus it appears the visual organ is subject to the same laws which govern the other parts of the nervous system; and an increased stimulus, by repetition, soon loses its power to produce an increased effect, therefore I refused my eye any further assistance than it received from No. 2., which I have worn near twenty years, and it is as sufficient help to me now as it was when I first employed it, giving me a sight, as I find by comparison, about upon a par with common eyes, notwithstanding without my spectacles I am quite as short-sighted as some of my acquaintance who use No. 6. and 7. concave; i. e. we read at the same distance. I wish most earnestly to advise those who need the help of concave glasses, to be content with as shallow ones as possible; and for distant objects to use a small opera-glass, which, having an adjustable focus, if it only magnifies once, will be infinitely better than a single concave, because it can be exactly adapted to any distance.

'Let those who use convexes be content with as little assistance as will enable them to read a newspaper by candle-light, always using a reading candle-stick with a shade, to shield the eye from the glare of the candle: this is of the greatest assistance to the sight, by preserving the sensibility of the optic pupil, which inevitably adjusts itself to the brightest object.'

EDUCATION.

Art. 22. *A Letter of Advice to his Grand-children*, by Sir Matthew Hale, Lord Chief Justice in the Reign of Charles II. now first published. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1816.

The public is here presented with a compendious and valuable work, containing much pious and useful counsel, and rendered (as we think) more agreeable and impressive by what now appears to be the *quaint* style of the good Chief-Justice.

In the chapter 'concerning the Employments of young Gentlewomen,' Sir Matthew Hale makes complaints which would probably find a ready echo in many modern families: he says, 'Now the world is altered. Young gentlewomen learn to be bold, talk loud, and more than comes to their share; think it disparagement for them to know what belongs to good housewifery or to practise it; make it their business to paint or patch their faces, to curl their locks, and to find out the newest and costliest fashions, and sit in a *rubbed parlour* till dinner come in; and after dinner either to cards, or to *the Exchange,* or to Hyde Park, or to an impertinent visit; and after supper, either to a ball or to cards. If a fit of reading come upon them, it is some romance or play-book or love-story, and if they have at any time a fit of using their needle, it is some such unprofitable or costly work that spends their friends or husbands more than it is worth when it is finished.' With a little change of hours, for now the 'impertinent visits' are paid before dinner, and the 'balls and cards' do not wait for the supper, the spirit of dissipation in the days of our grand-mothers seems to have been nearly the same as in the present day; and those of our fair readers, who wish for a rational guide to nobler pursuits, will find it in Sir Matthew Hale's 'Letter of Advice.'

Art. 23. *Motherless Mary,* a Tale; shewing that goodness even in Poverty is sure of meeting its proper Reward. By the Author of Arthur and Alice, &c. Small 12mo. 1s. Harris. 1816.

A pleasing and moral tale for children, ornamented with six neat engravings.

Art. 24. *Cato,* or interesting Adventures of a Dog of Sentiment. Interspersed with many amiable Examples and real Anecdotes. By a Lady. Small 12mo. pp. 176. Harris. 1816.

A commendable little book, which conveys the important lesson of humanity to animals.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 25. *Comparative Thoughts on the Merits of the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, and of the Bible-Society;* and the Utility of the District-Committees exemplified, and an Account of the Proceedings of the District-Committee of the Deanery of Newport Pagnel, Bucks. By the Rev. John Fisher. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1816.

Mr. Fisher contends that 'the evil produced by the new Bible-Society is by no means equivocal,' but that 'it is positive and visible.'—'It has,' he says, 'produced a result, a sin, which all the members of that Society, who are of the Church, constantly pray to be delivered from, it has produced a schism in the church of England.' That schism in the Church, which the Bible-Society is here said to have caused, must be rather a subject of congratulation than of regret, when we consider that it is a change in favour of reason and of charity. It has made one part of the Church more tolerant than the rest. Surely it will not be said that we are not to improve one part of any large society, because we cannot improve the whole at once; according to which reasoning, all improvement must be at an end, for in numerous bodies it cannot be simultaneous. The great good of the Bible-Society has been the friendly union which it has produced among the different sects of religionists, and the consequent indifference to questions and strife of words:—it has lowered the estimation of *polemical* and raised that of *practical* religion.

Art. 26. *Thoughts on the Tendency of Bible-Societies* as affecting the Established Church, and Christianity itself as a reasonable Service. By the Rev. A. O'Callaghan, A. M. Master of the College of Kilkenny. 8vo. Pamphlet. Printed at Dublin. 1816.

'The diffusion of Christian knowledge,' says Mr. O'Callaghan, 'is one thing; the circulation of Bibles and Testaments another:' but how can the stream be so well supplied as from the fountain-head, and how can religious knowlege be conveyed to the mind with so little adventitious contamination as from the parent-source? In Mr. O'C.'s opinion, 'the Bible, without note or comment, is unfit for the perusal of the rude and illiterate:' but this is going too far. To whom was the Gospel first preached? to the rude and illiterate, or to the erudite and refined? The great excellence of the Gospel is that its most salutary truths are obvious to all capacities; and, though difficulties prevail in the evangelical books, they are not among those precepts of which the practice is most requisite to fit the individual for future happiness. Mr. O'Callaghan tells us that the peasant 'cannot *use*, he must *abuse* the Scriptures.' This is rather an inverted panegyric on the Christian Revelation; and the author's reasoning is more worthy of the Roman Catholic than of the Protestant school.

Art. 27. *Biblical Gleanings;* or a Collection of Passages of Scripture that have been generally considered to be mis-translated in the received English Version. With proposed Corrections; also the important various Readings in both Testaments, and occasional Notes interspersed, with a View to the Illustration of obscure and ambiguous Texts, &c. By Thomas Wemyss. 8vo. pp. 300. 7s. 6d. Boards. Ogle, &c.

It may be granted that the necessity of maintaining, against Catholics, the sufficiency of the Scriptures to secure salvation, has led some Protestants to under-rate the obscurities which they occasionally present to us who read them in countries so remote and dissimilar from those with which their authors were acquainted, and in the midst of manners, arts, and social institutions which mould our sentiments and tinge our language so differently from theirs. Even when a correct text of the original has been correctly translated, a multitude of allusions and metaphors must remain, requiring the commentator's aid to make them intelligible. We know not, therefore, what more acceptable service could be rendered to the readers of the Scriptures, by a man of learning who had access to the best theological authors, than to separate all that is exegetical from all that is controversial in their works, and to bring forth all that is now inurned in their ponderous folios and quartos, placing it within general reach by the adoption of a portable form and economical manner of printing. The astonishing increase in the circulation of the Scriptures, by the operations of the Bible-Society, has made this undertaking doubly desirable, if a large portion of the benefits which might arise from that institution are not to be lost. Controversy leads both parties to extremes. The friends of the Bible-Society being called to defend the principle of their association, viz. the exclusion of notes and comments from the Bibles which they distribute, against those who would join the Prayer-book with the Scriptures, seem to have brought themselves to think that there is some negative virtue in the absence of notes, and that the Bible has a much better chance of being understood without them. They act wisely, no doubt, in excluding such appendages, because they could not otherwise unite all parties in the support of their institution: but they surely cannot suppose that the naked text, and in a very faulty translation, can every where be understood by all the thousands of persons in whose hands it is placed by their instrumentality. As we have just observed in the preceding article, the moral precepts of Scripture, and the facts in which the truth of Revelation is involved, are sufficiently clear: but, in many places, difficulties occur which perplex the reader, and make him lose much of the force and beauty even of that which he understands.

Mr. Wemyss's publication, though partly designed to supply the want which we have described, does not exactly agree either in its plan or its execution with the idea which we have suggested. His arrangement of his materials is unfortunate. He gives first a collection of miscellaneous passages in which the common version is corrected, extending through 100 pages; then a collection of various readings; which are succeeded by a minute classification of the faults of the present version, according to the principles of grammar, propriety, purity, delicacy, &c. against which it offends. Had Mr. W. been writing, like Dr. Symonds, to shew the necessity of a revisal of the common version, and writing to scholars, this classification might have been proper: but the unlearned, for whose benefit his work is professedly designed, will only be puzzled by an arrangement that interferes with the one to which alone they are accustomed, viz. the order in which the books are placed. Should the volume reach another edition, we advise him to abandon all his subdivisions, and give his correction of the text, or the translation, or his explanatory note, with the laudable brevity which he practises, according to the order in which the passages occur. We should not recommend much addition, from that *corps de reserve* of which he speaks, but rather some retrenchment; since in many places his substituted renderings appear to us less clear than the words of the common version. Even in its present state, however, the work may be very useful; and it bears evident marks of the author's diligent study of the sacred writings, and his strong wish to render them more generally edifying.

Art. 28. *The Tyrant of the Church*. 12mo. Boards. Ogles. 1816.

This author endeavours to prove that there is a peculiar adaptation in the numerical name of the beast in the Apocalypse to his Antichristian character; and he finds the number of the name in the Roman numerals which are contained in these words: ECCLESIÆ CATHOLICÆ IPSE VISIBILE CAPUT. No farther light is thrown on the subject; which is still involved in that happy state of darkness that leaves room for endless disputation.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 29. *Scientific Swimming*; being a Series of practical Instructions, on an original and progressive Plan, by which the Art of Swimming may be readily attained, with every Advantage of Power in the Water. Accompanied with 12 Copperplate Engravings, comprising 26 appropriate Figures, correctly exhibiting and elucidating the Action and Attitude in every Branch of that invaluable Art. By J. Frost, many years Teacher of the Art at Nottingham. 8vo. pp. 49. 8s. Boards. Darton and Co. 1816.

Jack Frost has generally been supposed to be a decided obstacle to the healthy and useful exercise of swimming, but here we have a *J. Frost* whose object is to facilitate and promote it. His own proficiency in the art, too, and his exertions in forming the present guide to it, appear to be such that we hope his book, like himself, will go on swimmingly, and float pleasantly with the tide of popular favour; at least among those who are interested by its instructions and disposed to profit by them.

Eleven chapters, subdivided also into sections, treat of the general Mode of Swimming, — of Swimming on the Back, — of treading Water, — of Diving, — of Floating on the Water, — of the Way of coming at Rest in an instant, called Suspension by the Chin, — of One-arm Swimming, — of Directions to be observed on first attempting to swim, — of bad Swimming, — of Instruments proper to be used in particular Cases, — and of Sportive Swimming. The author avails himself of the great Dr. Franklin's recommendation of this art, in the shape of a motto to his book; and he proceeds to offer his own suggestions on its utility and pleasantness, as inducements to the study of his system. We agree with him in his remarks, and approve also of his intimation in p. 15., that 'we should not see such frequent prohibitions on the banks of rivers, &c. from taking the benefit of bathing, if necessary decency were attended to: a thin calico, of very little cost or cumber, is suitable for bathing habits, which may be conveyed in a handkerchief without inconvenience.' The figures in the plates to this volume are thus draped.

The season for enjoying the pleasures of the water is now approaching, and will afford opportunities for trying the efficacy of Mr. Frost's

Mr. Frost's system. He is, we understand, an industrious weaver at Nottingham; and perhaps he will find that he has not mis-spent some leisure-hours in weaving this literary fabric.

Art. 30. *The Young Man's Book of Knowledge;* containing a familiar View of the Importance of Religion, the Works of Nature, &c. &c. By Thomas Tegg. 12mo. pp. 328. 3s. Boards. Tegg. 1816.

The scientific subjects which Mr. Tegg undertakes to discuss in this little volume are Logic, Eloquence, the Passions, Matter and Motion, Magnetism, the Mechanical Powers, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Optics, Acoustics, Electricity, Galvinism, Geometry, Geography, Astronomy, History, Chronology, &c. &c. &c. Considering the number of topics and the size of the volume, we did not expect to see any very learned discussions of all these subjects: but neither had we any idea of finding such a collection of incorrect and unintelligible scraps as are made to compose this *Book of Knowlege.*

If we turn to the laws of motion, we are informed that a falling body is accelerated in its descent: but the reader is cautioned not to attribute this circumstance to the decrease of the force of gravity as we ascend from the earth, since it is to be explained on other principles; viz. that, if a stone falls only a foot above a man's head, 'it is not so likely to be so fatal as if it fell from the parapet of a high house. The falling body *therefore must of necessity* acquire an increase of velocity in its descent.'

'This effect must therefore be referred to the first law of motion, as laid down by Sir Isaac Newton, which is, that "all bodies are indifferent of motion and rest: in other words, a body at rest will continue in that state, unless put in motion by some external impulse; and a body in motion will continue that motion for ever, unless stopped by some external obstruction." This property of matter is termed, in the technical language of philosophy, its vis inertiæ.'

After this very profound illustration of the laws of acceleration, we were rather surprized to find the same subject still pursued in the following page; where we learn, for the *first time,* that a body falling through 16½ feet will acquire a velocity that carries it through three times 16½ or 49½ feet in the next second; and that in two seconds it will acquire a velocity of five times 16½, and so on. Surely this additional velocity of 16½ feet, which Mr. Tegg has discovered, is not to be attributed to the '*sluggishness* of matter, or as it is commonly called its *vis inertiæ;*' at all events, 'upon this easy principle depends the whole of mechanics.'

In the chapter on hydrostatics, we learn 'that, if a leaden bullet is dropped into a vessel of water, it will take up just as much room as a small globe of water of equal dimensions. On this principle *is* founded the tables of specific gravities and what is called the hydrostratic balance.'— All this is very learned, but it sinks into *nothingness* compared with the chapter on geometry; where we learn that

'Geometrical lines and figures are not only proper to represent to the imagination the relations between magnitudes, or between things susceptible of more and less, as spaces, times, weights, motions, &c.; but they may even represent things which the mind can no otherwise conceive, *e. g.* the relations of incommensurable magnitudes.

'We do not, however, pretend, that all subjects men may have occasion to inquire into, can be expressed by lines. There are many not reducible to any such rule: thus, the knowledge of an infinitely powerful, infinitely just God, on whom all things depend, and who would have all his creatures execute his orders, to become capable of being happy, is the principle of all morality, from which a thousand undeniable consequences may be drawn, and yet neither the principle nor the consequences can be expresed by lines or figures.'

The definitions, axioms, &c. are of the same stamp with the above. Some few of them it may not be amiss to transcribe, if not for the information, at least, for the amusement of our readers:

'The *horizontal* is a line in equilibrium, or that inclines equally in all its parts.'

'A *Trapezium* is a figure, two of whose sides only are parallel, the two others equal.

'A *Trapesiod*, one whose sides and angles are unequal.'—

'A is a *Circle*, which is a superficies or figure perfectly round, described from a centre whose circumference is equally distant from it. The circumference is the extremity of the circle, or the line which incloses it.

'B an *Oval*, which is a curvilinear figure described from several centers, and all whose diameters divide equally in two.

'C an *Ellipsis*, which is also a curvilinear figure described from several centers, but in the form of an egg, and of which there is but one diameter that divides it equally in two.

'A semicircle is so much of a circle as is contained from its diameter either way.

'A sector is a figure composed of two semi-diameters, with more or less than half of the circle.'—

'Equal figures are those whose centers are the same, and which may be similar or dissimilar.'—

'Things which are double the proportion of another are in themselves equal.

'Things which have but half the proportion of other equal things are in themselves equal.'

In the chapter on History, besides the introduction of several new facts *never before published*, we find considerable alteration in the dates of those that were previously known: but we cannot allow ourselves to enter into many particulars, and shall therefore only state two, viz. that 'Anne of Cleves, after being divorced, was beheaded by Henry VIII.;' and that, in the reign of Henry V., 'on Candlemas-day 1415, seven dolphins were seen playing in the river Thames, and four of them taken'!!!

Since the above article was written, we have seen a fourth edition of Mr. Tegg's book, purporting to be 'enlarged, with an Index.'

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 31. Preached in the Chapel of Lambeth-Palace, 24th March 1816, at the Consecration of the Honourable and Right Reverend Edward Legge, LL.D., Lord Bishop of Oxford. By the Rev. Charles Parr Burney, M.A. F.R.S., Chaplain to the Lord Crewe. Published by Command of His Grace the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury. 4to. Payne and Foss.

In this consecration-sermon, Mr. Burney has exhibited not only much copiousness of reading, but a considerable share of ingenuity, in supporting the high pretensions of the bishops and clergy of our church. When we read the first part of his remarks, we suspected that he was going to set up for its ministers a claim to privileges of a very disputable kind; and, though it is not directly enforced in the latter part of the sermon, we are led to infer that a superior degree of efficacy attends the ministration of the established hierarchy:

'In them,' says Mr. B., 'reside all the powerful sanctions, which by derivation from Christ himself belong to his appointed servants: and in the superior order we recognize the virtual and commissioned successors of the apostles themselves, and consider them as similarly invested, by their one common Lord, with the functions of teaching, ordering, and governing his church.' P. 24.

What precise ideas are we to affix to '*the virtual and commissioned successors of the apostles*,' in whom reside such '*powerful sanctions by derivation from Christ himself*?' Have the English bishops, as *virtual and commissioned successors of the apostles*, a degree of supernatural illumination which does not belong to the rest of the church? If this be not Mr. Burney's meaning, why does he speak at p. 27. of 'the soundness of the doctrines received in any church' being '*determined by the traditions which passed down from the apostles through the succession of bishops*?' If the soundness of the doctrines, which any church may embrace, is to be determined by such traditions, then it is clear that there cannot well be any sound doctrine in those Christian communions which have no bishops, through whom such traditions could be preserved; and it moreover follows that no sound doctrine can be deduced from the Scriptures without the auxiliary light of this episcopal tradition. At p. 14. Mr. B. seems to intimate that 'the existence of any religion' depends on the sacerdotal office: but how, then, comes it to pass that so much pure religion exists amongst the Quakers, who have no priests? The author, indeed, (p. 21.) talks of 'the depth of that wisdom which links the *outward ordinances of religion indissolubly with its real and lasting benefits*.' If this be the case, what becomes of the spiritual adoration which Christ enjoined? Mr. B. also speaks (p. 23.) of the superlative 'national advantages' which have been produced among us by the union of 'the civil and ecclesiastical polity.'

'The state itself,' says he, 'has become Christian.' Would that it were so: but how does it happen that we have lately witnessed such a sad continuity of war and bloodshed for more than twenty years? When a state is truly Christianized, its emblem will be rather the green olive-branch than the reeking sword.

Art. 32. *The Parallel: Nebuchadnezzar and N. Buonaparte:* Preached on the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving in a Parish-Church bordering upon Torbay, where Buonaparte was some time detained, after his Surrender, in the Bellerophon Man of War, before his Deportation to the Island of St. Helena. Published by particular Desire: with a Dedicatory Address to him. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

The singular termination of Bonaparte's wonderful career forms a fine subject for the reflections of the moralist and the divine. No man ever attained higher elevation, or ever fell from it by a more sudden and unexpected precipitation. His power appeared to be established on a rock, and no dynasty in Europe seemed more likely to be permanent: but his ambition, rendered only more insatiable by success, trampling on justice and humanity, and despising the suggestions even of the most obvious policy, ultimately caused his dominion to pass away like a vision of the night. His history proves, in the most striking manner, that no power, however colossal, can safely venture to despise all moral considerations; and it teaches us that a vigorous counteraction to tyranny and oppression is operative in the common sentiments of mankind. The anonymous author of this sermon has not made the most of his subject: but he has comforted Napoleon himself by the assurance that, though '*his load of blood-guiltiness is heavier, perhaps, than ever was laid upon any other mortal being,*' and though his '*sins out-numbered the hairs of his head or the sands upon the sea-shore, there is merit in Emanuel's blood to wash them clean away.*'

Art. 33. Delivered in Whitburn-Church, on the 24th March 1816, after the sudden Death of the Hon. William Baillie, Esq. of Polkemmet, one of the Senators of the College of Justice in Scotland, who, on the 20th of March 1816, was buried in his Tomb adjoining that Church. By the Rev. James Watson, Minister of Whitburn. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co. 1816.

Mr. Watson has exhibited the characteristic difference between a bad and a good man with much force of delineation; and the traits of probity and beneficence, which were resplendent in the life and conduct of the Hon. William Baillie, furnish very satisfactory proofs of the description of persons among whom he may be classed. The words "Good Man" may be truly inscribed on his tomb.

Art. 34. Delivered at the Unitarian Chapel, Chichester, April 21st, 1816, on Occasion of the Death of Thomas P. Powell, M.D. By W. J. Fox. 8vo. 1s. Hunter. 1816.

A feeling, sensible, and impressive sermon; in which the topics of serious admonition and of tender solace are well selected, and forcibly expressed. It is preceded by a biographical preface, subscribed J. S., which induces us to entertain a very favourable opinion of the talents and virtues of the deceased.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The works mentioned by *W. H.* in a letter from Manchester have been received, and are under consideration.

In answer to *F. G.*, on the subject of the supposed *St. Helena Manuscript*, we have to observe that we intended to take notice of that publication in our present Number, but that we have been induced to extend our inquiries respecting its more than dubious birth, and have consequently been obliged to delay our account of it. In the next Review, we hope to be able to offer a definite opinion of it.

Puss in the Corner may be a very sly puss, but she must not put her paws on us.

We are sorry that *V. N.* had not adverted to the declaration which we so often have occasion to make, that we never use anonymous communications.

⁂ The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for May, at the end of that month.

GENERAL INDEX.

In answer to the numerous inquiries and applications which have been made to us, respecting a new GENERAL INDEX, we have now to announce that this undertaking, comprizing the whole of the New Series of the Monthly Review to the end of the year 1816, is on the point of being put to the press. The plan of the former General Index will be observed: but some improvements will be adopted, and greater copiousness of reference be introduced, in the way of duplication, so as to render less likely any failure of search. It is calculated to form two very large volumes in octavo.

⁂ As this work is of a very expensive nature, Gentlemen who intend to be purchasers of it are requested to give their orders to their respective booksellers, or to our publisher, without delay, that some idea may be formed with regard to the number of copies that may be wanted. Many more than the demand is likely to require will not be printed, and the volumes can never again go to the press. The price, it is supposed, will be two guineas, which must be raised to non-subscribers, after the 1st of June next, to two guineas and a half.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
EIGHTY-SECOND VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Le Roi, la Charte, et la Monarchie,* &c.; *i.e.* The King, the Charter, and the Monarchy. By M. Villemain, Professor in the "Faculty of Literature in Paris." Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 60. Paris. 1816.

Art. II. *Proposition faite à la Chambre des Pairs,* &c.; *i.e.* Proposition laid before the House of Peers by Viscount Chateaubriand, 23d November, 1816, for a Petition to the King to examine into the Proceedings at the late Elections. With an Appendix of Official Documents. 8vo. Paris.

The interest excited by parliamentary discussions is likely to receive a very considerable extension by the establishment of legislative assemblies, both in France and the new kingdom of the Low-Countries: the minds of men being now relieved from the incessant agitation of military struggles, and enabled to devote their continued attention to the less formidable conflicts of their civil representatives. In France, much stormy discussion must still be expected from the divided state of the public feeling, and the frequent collision of the interests of emigrants and revolutionists. Indeed, the doctrine of moderation is seldom acceptable to political combatants in any country; and, among our neighbours, the numerous partizans known by the name of Ultra-royalists imagine that the recovery of their forfeited lands, and their re-instatement in their antient privileges, ought to be the fair and almost necessary consequence of the re-establishment of the antient dynasty.

Under these circumstances, M. VILLEMAIN, a young man distinguished for his early proficiency in letters, and occupying at Paris a public office under the title of *Chef de la Division de la Librairie*, (superintendant of the regulations of the bookselling business,) has taken up the pen, and presented himself to his countrymen with an ardent exhortation to rally round the existing constitution, and to forget their past differences in mutual sacrifices and zealous attachment to the royal family. His style, without having any of the polish or even the neatness which a finished revisal would have conferred on it, is marked by a great degree not only of energy but of vehemence; displaying animated figures in rapid succession, and a tone of elevation to which we are little familiarized on the northern side of the Channel. Many of the clergy and *noblesse* have been seen to carry their zeal for the old state of things so far, as to deprecate altogether the existence of a parliament or representative body; a doctrine against which M. V. exclaims with great vivacity, contending that the existence of such an assembly is indispensably necessary to the maintenance of the Bourbon-family on the throne.

> ' Such a body supports all that is just or expedient in the effects of the Revolution; it is favourable to the crown, because it confirms the royal prerogative to all the extent proper for a limited monarchy; and it is favourable to the people because it was planned with a view to the advantage of all. In vain do some men endeavour to render it the source of a system of exclusion, or seek in it a sanction for undue preferences. The nation is now enlightened, and habituated to the enjoyment of that equality of rights which has so long formed the blessing of England; not a vain and chimerical equality, but that which places the commoner on a footing with the peer in the administration of justice, and in the participation of public burdens. The Constitutional Charter is founded on the laws, the habits, and the feelings of the country; it embraces the interests of the upright revolutionist, as well as of the moderate royalist; and it excludes the pretensions of the more violent part of both. The men who called themselves *Royalistes purs*, in the beginning of 1816, now assume the name of *Constitutionels purs:* but they will not succeed in persuading us that they are the only friends to monarchy, or that the *Tiers Etat* ought to be excluded from a large share of influence in the government. In the rude days of our ancestors, the nobles and clergy were the only acknowleged classes in France; the mass of the people came in for their share at a late period, but that share has become extended as agriculture has improved, as trade has flourished, and as the population of the towns has increased. The *Tiers Etat* comprizes not only the great body of traders and farmers, but many of the

lawyers, landed proprietors, and monied men of France. What else is the progress of civilization but the increase of the middle classes? What is a representative body but a participation in the government by this very large and efficient branch of the community? Again, the grand spring of every legislative assembly is public opinion, and what can we call this but the opinion of the bulk of the nation?'

Let us now advert to the *Temper of the French Parliament.* On the return of the King after the battle of Waterloo, a new parliament was elected, and the Ultra-royalists had, as we might expect from the inflamed state of the public mind, a great majority over the moderate part of their brethren. This majority proceeded, particularly in the spring of 1816, to pass a number of rigorous edicts, until at last they went altogether beyond the wish of the King and his ministers, and left the latter in a minority on several important questions. The principal of these related to the conditions of the amnesty about to be extended to all, except the grand co-operators in *Bonaparte*'s measures on his return from Elba. Enough, in the opinion of the King and his ministers, had been done by the death of *Ney* and *Labedoyère:* but the Ultra-royalists were by no means satisfied, and called loudly for additional punishments. This desire went at last to an extent that caused the greatest disquietude to that numerous body, the occupants of the national lands, and threatened a re-action more suitable to the days of *Robespierre* than to the spirit of the existing constitution. Fortunately, the King found in the House of Peers some support against this excess of zeal in the Commons: but he was, notwithstanding, obliged to resort to an early prorogation and an eventual dissolution of this vehement and discordant assembly. Nothing could have given greater satisfaction to the moderate royalists, and to those who still (however improperly) bear the name of revolutionists, than this decisive measure. The new elections, which took place in October last, returned a majority of this description; by means of whom the King and his ministers are now enabled to carry on the public business, not indeed without an animated opposition, but without those serious impediments to good government which marked the preceding assembly.

M. Villemain concludes by a chapter appropriated to a singular topic, — the extraordinary exaggerations and rumours that are perpetually current in France, and to which he gives the significant name of *calomnies politiques.* Our stock-jobbing reports are mere trifles when compared to the wondrous tales of our southern neighbours, who have never been noted for imposing a restraint on their happy talent for embellishing and amplifying. Without undertaking to accomplish a complete reform of his countrymen, the author urges them to refrain as much as they possibly can from these ridiculous extremes; to confine their attention to a few specific points; to consider the mitigation of the penal laws against revolutionists as the first proper object of the legislature; and in the next, but only in the next place, to look for a removal of the restrictions on the liberty of the press.

We are next to attend to a publication by a politician of a very different cast; of one who was formerly noted for his extraordinary zeal for Louis XVIII., but who forsook the court and joined the banners of Opposition, as soon as the King determined on throwing himself into the hands of the *Modérés* of both parties, to the exclusion of the Ultra-royalists. M. DE CHATEAUBRIAND began by publishing a pamphlet, asserting that, in dissolving the Chamber of Deputies, the King was not only ill-advised but persuaded to act in contradiction to his personal wishes; a declaration so derogatory to the presumed infallibility of the crown, as to induce the ministers immediately to advise the King to strike the name of M. DE C. out of the list of his counsellors. This was accordingly done before the general election, and served to apprize all Frenchmen of the light in which the King was determined to view any opposition to his new measures. Nothing, however, could stop the pen of this indefatigable writer, who lost no time in giving the public a tract relative to a constitutional question of great importance, viz. "the impropriety of any interference on the part of ministers with the freedom of parliamentary elections;" a tract managed with more attention to dates and circumstances, as well as with less general exaggeration, than we have had occasion to notice in other political effusions from the same pen. The following is an extract of the "Instructions" sent from Paris by the Minister of Police to the prefects in every department.

"*Paris*, 12*th September*, 1816.

"With regard to the elections, the King's will ought to be the will of his ministers. There are not two interests in the state; and, to remove even the shadow of those parties which cannot subsist without endangering its existence, we must have no other deputies than those whose intentions proceed in unison with the King, the Charter, and the people, whose fate indeed is in a great measure placed in their hands. The men who have constantly wandered from these salutary principles ought not to be put in nomination by the local authorities, or permitted to avail themselves of their influence to obtain a favour which would prove detrimental to the public.

"No mercy must be shewn to the factious who openly avow criminal hopes, and who expect to find in the elections a favourable opportunity of creating trouble and spreading disorder. Prevent, also, the appearance of those hasty and exaggerating publications which the members of secret societies are ever anxious to produce under the cloak of royalism.

"In the *ordonnance* of the King, the public functionaries will perceive nothing but his will, the wants of the state, and the Charter. When uncertain how to act, they will address themselves to the Ministers; who, to questions frankly put, will give equally frank answers; — instructions from any other quarter can only mislead them. Their task is important, but it is easy, because it is clearly marked; they are sure of the support of a watchful minister, and strong in the confidence of the King.

"The trust which his Majesty has placed in his prefects will not be disappointed on this occasion. He expects that they will direct all their efforts to keep equally at a distance those enemies of the throne and of legitimate succession, who wish to overthrow the one and set aside the other; and those ill-judged friends who would shake the throne by wishing to serve it in a manner different from the King's wishes; men who, in their blindness, presume to dictate laws to his wisdom, and pretend to govern for him. The King will hear of no extremes;—he expects, from the choice of the electoral colleges, deputies who will bring to the new Chamber those principles of moderation which form the rule of his government and of his policy; who belong to no party, to no secret society; who listen to no interests but those of the state and the throne; who have no hidden motives; and who respect the Charter as they love the King."

(Signed) "*Le Comte de Cazes.*"
(Minister of Police.)

This curious document soon found its way to the public, and was quoted against ministers in the Chamber of Deputies shortly after the beginning of the session. The advocates of government maintained that the spirit of the instructions was limited; that they did not imply the patronage of men of doubtful character, however subordinate to government: but that the whole meaning was that "the influence of the executive power should not be thrown into the scale in favour of those representatives, who, during the preceding session, had shewn themselves active in support of extreme measures, although aware that these were in contradiction to the King's wish." This palliative, however, can scarcely be reconciled to the very active part taken, according to the present author's account, in various departments by the subordinate agents of government.

'If,' says he, 'from the ministers we descend to their emissaries, we shall find that many of the latter have been sent into the departments to influence the elections, armed with powers the extent of which is unknown. These powers appear to have been of two sorts; the first, given in writing and expressed in general terms, seem to have been drawn for public inspection; the second consisted in secret instructions, written or verbal; this at least appears from reading the documents in my Appendix. How many of these agents were employed? what number of departments did they traverse? what did they say and do during their journies? These questions we cannot fully answer without an official inquiry, but we shall offer the following facts.

'A person named M. *A*—— travelled through nine or ten departments, the Loiret, the Nièvre, the Allier, Saône-et-Loire, the Loire, the Haute-Loire, and the Aveyron, calling every where on the public authorities, displaying his powers, and speaking loudly against the conduct of the majority in the late House of Representatives. In the department of Aveyron, this Mr. *A.* appears to have demanded of the prefect the temporary removal of the commandant of *Gendarmerie*, whom he considered as an Ultra-royalist; and he positively forbade the election of Messrs. de *Bonald* and *Clausel*.

'At Digne [in the Lower Alps], we find another agent calling himself *R*——, who threatened the magistrates with the loss of their places if M. *de Vitrolles* should be re-elected. He urged the men who were most noted for their revolutionary conduct, and for their infidelity during *Bonaparte*'s usurpation, to be present at the elections, and to keep away the noblesse and the King's late servants. — At Dijon, another travelling agent pretended to have an order to exclude Messrs. *de Grosbois* and *Brennet* from being elected. — At Auch, the same scene, the same conduct. An agent demanded the expulsion of M. *de Castel-Bajac*.—A Sieur *le C*—— appeared at Caen with several other agents; they gave him the title of *Inspecteur d'Opinion*, and he declaimed against the late deputies.—At Beauvais, two other personages appeared; the Sieur *B*—— or *la B*——; and one of these agents, being an Inspector of the Treasury, threatened to displace all who were employed in that department who did not oppose M. *de Kergorlay*. The same person shewed himself at Amiens.

'Let us now proceed to the prefects. The first who presents himself is the Prefect of Arras; his circular letter contains the following passage, now so generally known: "I am authorized to say, to repeat, and to write, that the King will be displeased to see any of those members sitting in the new Chamber, who made themselves conspicuous during the last session by their adherence to the majority opposed to government." — "On your arrival at Arras, do me the honour, Sir, to call on me; I alone can inform you of the real wishes and intentions of the King." All comments are here unnecessary. One of the members of the electoral college, of the department of the Pas-de-Calais, deemed it right to demand the production of this unconstitutional letter of the prefect: but he was forbidden to speak on the subject.

'The Prefect of Vaucluse appears to have pushed things to at least as great a length as the Prefect of the Pas-de-Calais. He wished to exclude M. de Forbin, and recommended M. *de Liau*-

taud to the electors, making use of the King's name. These facts are attested in a letter of M. *de Forbin*, complaining of this treatment, and addressed to the different Ministers of the Interior, of Police, and of Justice.'

In addition to these strong charges against ministers, M. DE CHATEAUBRIAND made no scruple to tell the world the various difficulties that he encountered in getting his pamphlet through the press. He applied in the first instance to *Didot*, printer for the House of Peers, who began the task, but soon took the alarm, and represented to the writer that the undertaking was too hazardous for a prudent *père de famille*. A second printer, having already smarted from the hand of the censor on account of a previous work of M. DE C., was not disposed to run new risks; so that it was not until repeated trials that the author succeeded in finding a person sufficiently intrepid to give his work to the public. Allowing our readers to decide for themselves between the French ministers and their ardent assailant, we take leave of the controversy, and conclude our article with the notice of a very essential peculiarity in the new constitution of France.

The Royal Initiative. — The present French constitution differs from ours in one very important point; viz. that of reserving to the King the exclusive right of bringing all bills into parliament. Were the members of the Opposition in France to possess this power, the plausible turn that they would give to their new propositions would soon carry with them the majority of a credulous public, and of a not less credulous parliament. An assembly of Frenchmen cannot refrain from the rage of innovating, and the nation is still too fickle and too fond of novelty to know where to stop. Five years, the time prescribed for the duration of a French parliament, would be sufficient to form parties of the most dangerous tendency; parties which would at first gain the public favour by a few praise-worthy measures, and would soon abuse it by making the most insidious attacks on the executive power. The laws of France are of only twelve or fifteen years' standing; they have none of the strength attendant on long establishments; and parties could not play a hostile game with each other without shaking the constitution at its foundation. This important privilege of the executive power (which exists likewise in the new kingdom of the Low-Countries) forms the grand distinction between the government of France and that of England. In other respects, we trace a great share of resemblance, the person of the King being sacred in both, and the responsibility confined to his ministers.

Art. III. *Des Finances de la France*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on the Finances of France, particularly on the Budgets of 1816, and succeeding Years, with introductory Observations on the "Opinion of a Member of the Committee for the Budget of 1817." By M. Laffon-de-Ladébat. 4to. pp. 70. Paris.

Art. IV. *Opinion de* M. de Villèle, &c.; *i. e.* Opinion of M. de Villèle, Deputy for the Department of the Upper Garonne, on the Budget of 1817, in a Speech delivered 5th February. 8vo. Paris.

Art. V. *Speech of* M. Laffitte, (Partner of *Perrégaux*,) on the Budget of 1817, delivered February 10th. 8vo. Paris.

Art. VI. *Speech of* M. Roger Collard, Deputy for the Department of the Marne, on that Part of the Budget of 1817 which relates to the Expence of Public Education. 8vo. Paris.

Having related in our last article the circumstances attending the election of the present Chamber of Deputies in France, we proceed to give some account of their deliberations during the session lately closed; deriving our conclusions less from the news-papers of that country, in which the debates are given in a very abridged form, than from the printed speeches which are struck off at Paris in considerable numbers, and in which the government permits the insertion of many bold remarks that would not be allowed in a journal. Our readers may recollect that, in the late discussions at Paris on the liberty of the press, it was agreed to give considerable latitude of expression to books and pamphlets, but to forbid, during another year, the insertion of free animadversions in newspapers, the latter being likely to fall into the hands of multitudes who were incapable of passing a sound opinion on the allegations contained in them. The topics to which we shall at present advert, though apparently unconnected, were all suggested by the debates on the late budget; the question of providing funds for particular branches of the public service leading naturally to a series of observations on the merits of the different departments in question. We are thus to notice successively the arguments on the reduction of civil offices; of the military force; of pensions and miscellaneous services: as well as those on the state of public education, the revenue of the clergy, and, finally, the different projects brought forwards for the budget of the current year.

The grand theme of late with the French Opposition, as with our own, has been the necessity of public economy; a doctrine suitable indeed to all times and to all parties, but coming with rather a bad grace from the Ultra-royalists, who, so recently as a year ago, seemed to object to nothing that could

exalt

exalt the power of the executive branch. Whether their private motives may not now be to weaken the influence of their ministerial opponents by reducing their patronage, we shall leave to others to determine; it is enough for us that their admonitions are sound in themselves, and worthy of being carried into effect in every country, but above all in France: where the insecurity of a revolutionary government naturally led to the creation of a number of unnecessary places, for the purpose of establishing supporters in every corner of the country.

Reduction of civil Offices. — 'The appointments,' says M. VILLÈLE, one of the most distinguished members of the Opposition, 'the appointments of the cashiers and clerks in the various *bureaux* of finance amount collectively to not less than 150,000l. per annum; that is, to more than the whole land-tax in one of our finest departments, the one with which I am more immediately connected, that of the Upper Garonne. This expence comprizes, I am aware, the charge attendant on the payment of the public dividends at the treasury: but still I cannot help considering it as exorbitant, particularly as I perceive under the same head a charge of 22,000l. annually for paper, printing, firing, furniture, and other office-expences in the same department. There would be no end to the enumeration, were I to recapitulate all the deductions from the revenues on account of the office-expences of the post-master-general, the registrar-general, the director of customs, and the director of indirect taxes, all of whom have separate establishments, with a string of salaries for regular clerks, extra clerks, superannuations, conditional allowances, stationary, fuel, office-repairs, furniture, &c. &c. All these complicated machines, these never-ending wheels within wheels, were created by an unprincipled ruler, whose plan was to form to himself partizans in all directions, and to pay them not only out of the French taxes, but out of contributions from every part of the Continent. Now that we have a truly paternal government, let us lay the axe to the root of the tree, and begin with the department of direct taxes, the board appointed for which costs not less than 120,000l. yearly, although its only important duty is to prepare lists of the persons subject to taxation. It is a notorious fact that the chief clerks employ a swarm of needy scribblers to write out these long papers, and that they realize a handsome income by the difference between the sums which they charge to the public and those which they pay to their humble auxiliaries. This arises in a great measure from a wish to concentrate every thing in Paris, as if there were not many points on which, from local knowlege, the magistrates on the spot could decide with superior advantage. At the same time, provincial administrations are very expensive, for we pay eighty-eight prefects, as many departmental secretaries, and as many departmental councils, to which we are to add two hundred and eighty sub-prefects, with their respective offices. In point of salaries, this branch of our national expence exceeds 150,000l. per annum; in office-charges of the prefects, 130,000l.; and in those of the sub-prefects, 50,000l. I see no reason why one prefect should not be capable of presiding over three or four departments, in the same way as the intendant of a province did this before the Revolution, without costing more than 1500l. a-year to the public for himself and his clerks.'

Reduction of the military Force.—On this department of public expence, the Opposition on the other side of the Channel have had much less to say than the Opposition among us; the army having been, *de facto*, reduced before the second return of the Bourbons, and the latter having in a manner totally withholden promotion since that period. Still, however, there appears a possibility of farther retrenchment, founded on the extraordinary disproportion between the number of officers and that of the privates. The latter are at all times and in all countries more ready to withdraw from the service, but in the French army they have been exposed to extra losses from various causes, particularly in the fatal campaign of Russia; where the privates perished by thousands and tens of thousands, while many of the officers, by having the command of horses, or by having gold about their persons, found means to accomplish their escape.

'First,' says M. Villèle, 'as to our Local Militia, or *Compagnies Départementales*, as they are called. I was always adverse to this institution, and am still more so now that our army and police-establishment are organized. Why should we not dissolve these corps, and transfer the privates at once to the regular army, the departments consenting to give up their claim for the 40,000l. which each has thus disbursed? I speak with less confidence of the possibility of a reduction of our army: but it is clear that we have an overstock of staff-officers; and that we may reduce the twenty-three *maréchaux de camp* stationed in our twenty-three principal towns, exactly at the residence of the commanding officer of the division, who might certainly take their duty on himself. In fact, I am assured that, with respect to reviewing officers, commissaries, sub-inspectors, &c. we are now supporting a scale that might suit an army of 300,000 men. Even the interior of the war-office might admit of an annual reduction of 120,000l., by striking off double salaries. Similar retrenchments are practicable, I believe, at our principal sea-ports, the establishments there having been made on too large a scale. I insist the more on this reduction, because we can scarcely venture to calculate on a saving of one kind which I see is taken for granted by the ministers; I mean that of the cost of our colonies. They paid their own expences, it is said, during the last war; true, but by what means? By devolving on the inhabitants the burden of taxes and of military duty;—a course to be pursued only if we mean that our colonies should be open to all the world, and exposed to the attack of the first power that chuses to assail them.'

'The allies, I hope,' says M. Laffitte, 'will continue to lessen annually the army of occupation, after having seen that France is perfectly tranquil. The expence also of our own army might, without touching the half-pay, or lessening the number of troops on foot, be brought down by not less a sum than 600,000l. a-year. This I would accomplish by granting no more pensions, and by desisting from forming any new corps, whether Swiss or others. Farther, why should the charge for the navy exceed 2,000,000l. sterling, when it is notorious that France can have no pretensions to the maintenance of a naval force?'

In addition to these various recommendations, M. LAFFITTE proposes a considerable reduction in the number of judges; a department of public expence which, in France, is very considerable, from the extraordinary number (twenty-seven) of the provincial courts, and the endless succession of law-suits. What a difference exists in this respect between that country and our own, where twelve judges for England, and four for Wales, are found adequate to the performance of duties which, on the other side of the Channel, require above a hundred!

Pensions.—'With regard to pensions, I would propose,' says M. VILLÈLE, 'a suspension of the issue of public money during the next four years, in the case of all individuals who cannot produce proofs of being in very limited circumstances, or of an age that prevents them from adding to their income by personal exertion;—in short, I would suspend, for the term mentioned, all pensions to persons possessing any other annual income of more than 130l., (equal to 200l. in England,) or who should be under the age of sixty. Such a rule, applied indiscriminately and impartially, would be much more likely to answer our purpose than the invidious task of searching into the origin of a long list of public grants. If the case of such persons appears hard, what shall we say of that of the holders of our unfunded debt (*arrieré*,) who are not likely to touch any part of their property for four years to come? I would farther propose, as a general rule, that no servant of the public, except our marshals, ministers, and ambassadors, shall receive a yearly salary of more than 1600l.'

Miscellaneous Services.—'The title of *Ministre d'Etat*,' continues M. VILLÈLE, 'is conferred on a number of persons, and accompanied with a pension: but why should not the title alone be deemed sufficient, since it is merely honorary, requiring neither labour nor attendance? Next come the under-secretaryships of state, offices very lately created, in some cases within the last few months. This circumstance alone seems to argue that they are unnecessary, and that the chief clerks of the ministers might, as formerly, do the business allotted to these new functionaries. The salary of the members of our *Conseil d'Etat*, and the various expences of the office, amount to more than 32,000l. sterling; and I have yet to learn whether that establishment be a necessary part of our constitution, or whether the whole be not little else than a form. In the time of the Consulate, government had occasion for a number of speakers to advocate its cause before the *Tribunat*; and, after every vestige of liberty had disappeared, under the usurpation of *Bonaparte*, it was necessary to keep up the *Conseil d'Etat* with the view of blinding the nation to its abject state: but, now that the representatives of France enjoy the free exercise of their functions, and that government has renounced the plan of pensioned orators, I am of opinion that we may dispense with this council, since ministers can have no difficulty in finding intelligent persons in their employment, who are capable of preparing the bills to be brought before the Chambers.

'Another grievous source of expence to the public is the extra-interest paid by our treasury on anticipations of the public revenue, by which we annually incur a loss of half a million sterling. This is owing, we understand, to the heavy engagements incurred in 1813 and 1814, in the last efforts of *Bonaparte* against the allies: but we should stop at no sacrifice to get rid of it, because the state pays always an extra-charge for such irregular accommodation. — I must also say a few words on what is called the "secret budget," or the 1 or 200,000l. raised by taxes on gambling houses and from other disreputable sources. I would appropriate this singular fund not to the general business of government, but partly to the expence of police, and partly to the improvement of the buildings, streets, and squares of Paris.'

State of public Education in France. — In this, as in other respects, *Bonaparte* had converted every thing to the purpose of supporting his authority; placing all teachers and professors in a state of dependence on government, and obliging parents, by a species of compulsion which will scarcely be credited on our side of the Channel, to pay an annual tax on the education of their children, whether they were sent to the Lyceums or to private schools. Much has been said, since the return of the Bourbons, of putting an end to this abuse, but without any due sense (as far as we are able to perceive) of the necessity of throwing open to the widest competition this most important department of the national concerns. M. ROGER COLLARD, director of the Central Board of Education at Paris, presented, during the last session, the following exposition to the Chamber of Deputies:

'At present, every school and every college in France receive fees of some kind; no instruction being given gratuitously since the Revolution swallowed up the income appropriated to that purpose, and which, in former days, exceeded a million sterling. Several members have found fault with a tax levied under the name of *taxe universitaire*, or 5 per cent. on the sum received at each seminary, public or private, for board and education. At Paris, 36l. is the established charge for board and education in the public schools, and the tax is consequently 1l. 16s.: in the country, the charge is less, and varies, according to locality, from 30l. to 15l. or even 12l. a-head; but the *écoles premières*, or schools for the mere elements of education, are exempt from the tax, on the principle that the acquisition of reading and writing ought to be within the reach of the poorest classes. Moreover, the Lyceums have other pupils than those who are boarded within the walls, for the classes are open to scholars of all kinds under the name of *externes.* The sum thus levied is remitted to Paris, and appropriated to certain purposes by the Central Board of Education. Now what are these purposes? The Central Board was instituted on the broad principle that the "*care of public education should be vested in government, as far at least as general direction and superintendance are concerned.*" No member of this house has chosen to attack the propriety of placing such superintendance in the hands of government, but many have called for a new modelling of the rules of the Central Board. Be assured that no persons are more anxious for this revisal than the members of that Board, and the minister to whose department they belong. We have every reason to expect that a definitive law will be brought forwards on the subject in the next session: but I contend, in the meantime, that the public schools ought not to be allowed to suffer from the want of their usual funds. *Bonaparte* had made an engagement either to keep the number of 150 boarders in each of these schools, (of which we have 36 in the kingdom,) or to pay to the establishment a certain sum for each vacancy: but a succession of national disasters has prevented families from sending their sons as formerly to the Lyceums; and very little pains have been taken on the part of magistrates, or even of the government, to make up the sums stipulated for the deficiencies. The consequence is a great inadequacy of pecuniary means, with a demand of 60,000l. sterling in the budget of this year, under the head of Public Instruction. Do not apprehend that any part of this money is likely to be squandered; because, during the last two years, we have struck off two-thirds of our expences: no one, not even the grand master of the University, having an income of more than 500l. The only salaries left untouched were those of the inferior professors, which are already so limited as hardly to afford the means of existence.'

Revenue of the Church.— Nothing gives a clearer evidence of the political bias of an individual in France than his manner of speaking of the affairs of the church; the clergy having been, throughout, decided in their attachment to the Bourbons, and having undergone extraordinary sufferings in their cause. They have, moreover, no idea of a representative government, and no conception that the people ought in any way to interfere with those lofty dictates of power which issue from such high personages as the king and the head of the church. No class of men took a more active part in throwing odium on *Bonaparte's* government after his return from Elba, and none suffered so much from the disorders committed by the irregular bands of the army of the Loire. The stipends at present paid to the humbler class of clergy in France are calculated on a very narrow estimate of a bachelor's wants, and the well-wishers of the church have been anxiously awaiting opportunities of obtaining a legislative enactment for their increase:

founding their argument on the important fact that all for which they now ask is a mere trifle in comparison of what was taken away from the ecclesiastical body in the beginning of the Revolution. So long ago as November 1789, the total of the church-lands in France, valued at 100,000,000l. sterling, were put at the disposal of the government, under condition of providing by annual stipends for the support of the clergy and the relief of the poor. The far greater part of these lands were sold and squandered in the heat of the Revolution: but a portion, of no inconsiderable extent, still remains unsold, and is to be re-appropriated to the church; in addition to which it is proposed to pay out of the public revenue about 200,000l. annually in stipends to the collective body of the clergy. The priests are so very numerous, and in general so assiduous in the performance of their duty, that a general disposition prevails in both parties in the French legislature for their relief: but the most direct opposition was made to giving them a preference to the other pensioners of the state by the appropriation of a part of the national forests as a pledge. 'I do not object,' says M. LAFFITTE, 'to pay an adequate sum to the clergy, but it should be done in the shape of stipends issued from the Treasury, without calling for any specific security. Nothing would conduce more to the general credit of the French finances than the appropriation, whole and unincumbered, of the national forests to the sinking fund.'

State of the French Finances.—We took occasion, nearly two years ago, to report (M. R. vol. lxxviii.) a work by a very respectable writer, M. *Bignon*, who exhibited an encouraging prospect of the financial concerns of France after the peace of 1814. This prospect, however, was soon overcast by the return of *Bonaparte* from Elba, by the waste of property consequent on the interruption of mercantile business, by the expences of the hostilities of 1815, and, above all, by the heavy contributions imposed by the allied powers. The last, taken in conjunction with the maintenance of the allied army on the French frontier during five years, amount to nearly 60,000,000l. sterling; and the total damage to France, in consequence of *Bonaparte*'s fatal attempt, is not over-rated at 100,000,000l.; a sum which makes no ignoble figure when put in comparison with the miserable effects on England of our once admired Orders in Council. No class of men feels more severely the financial distress of France than the holders of the unfunded debt; by which we are to understand the creditors for the money raised by *Bonaparte*, in various ways, during the latter period of his struggle in 1813 and 1814. The Bourbon-government, finding it out of their power to pay off this arrear, and not judging it advisable to incorporate it with the funded debt, passed an act in September 1814, which conveyed to the holders of the debt in question an assurance that their claims should be funded, or put in a train of liquidation, at the rate of 3,000,000l. sterling per annum; and that the national forests should, in the interval, be considered as a pledge for the capital. This fair beginning was entirely stopped by the events of 1815, and the more urgent demands of the allied powers; so that this portion of the national creditors, many of them men of undoubted respectability, have for some time been deprived of both interest and capital, to the incalculable injury of public credit, and to the suspension of many commercial undertakings, which diffused life and vigour through the industrious part of the community.

The French houses of parliament met in October last, under very discouraging circumstances as far as the state of the finances was concerned; stocks were low, the 5 per cents. (which in that country resemble the 3 per cents. with us) being under 60, and the revenue altogether inadequate to the payment of the excess of the public expenditure above the receipts. That excess was not less than twelve millions sterling; for, though the revenue, taking in the war-taxes in all their extent, exceeds, as appears by the subjoined table, the ordinary expenditure, it left a very inadequate supply for the extra demands of the year.* To this item was added the mortifying certainty that

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* State of the French budget for 1816, leaving the payments to the allies out of the question, and considering the income and expence only with reference to France herself.

Expenditure.	£
Interest of national debt and pensions paid by govern^t.,	5,000,000
Interest of the unfunded debt, not fixed, but computed at	2,500,000
Civil list, in all its departments,	1,300,000
House of Peers,	80,000
——— of Deputies,	24,000
Administration of justice,	700,000
Foreign affairs,	250,000
Home-department, comprizing a variety of local expences, the funds for which, though raised on the spot, are held at the disposal of the minister for home affairs, and re-issued on an application to him from the prefects or mayors,	3,500,000
Army,	7,000,000
Navy,	2,000,000
Police,	40,000
Treasury-charges of all kinds,	1,4000,000
Annual appropriation to the sinking-fund,	800,000
	£24,594,000

Ways

that taxation in France was already extended to the utmost possible limit, and that any increase of it would be likely not merely to oppress but to ruin the particular branch surcharged. Another alarming consideration was the impracticability of accomplishing a loan among the merchants or capitalists of France; who have been so uniformly deceived by every government during the twenty-five years of the Revolution, as to lose almost all confidence in their public funds, and to be willing to lend money on mortgage at six or seven per cent. rather than to their sovereign at eight or nine. Rumours of a new war, whether with Austria, with England, or with Prussia, are perpetually circulating; and they suffice, when combined with the endless tales of the escape of *Bonaparte* from St. Helena, to keep the minds of a credulous and indiscriminating people in a state of perpetual uncertainty.

Plans for the Budget for 1817. — All this financial embarrassment led to much anxious speculation, and to the proposition of various plans to meet the emergency of the moment. Two of these were early laid before the public; the one by a member of the Finance Committee, the other by M. Laffon-de Ladébat, a veteran in legislative discussions, who nearly fell a victim in former years to the tyranny of the Jacobins.

Ways and Means.

	£
The *Foncier*, or tax on all real property, viz. the lands and houses of the kingdom at large, - - -	9,500,000
Mobilier, or tax on houses, with reference to the furniture and other effects of the tenant, - - -	1,500,000
Window-tax, - - - - - - - -	600,000
Patentes, or tax payable by persons exercising trades and professions, - - - - - - -	650,000
En-registrement et domaines. — This is a heavy tax on all sales, legacies, &c., and amounts to not less than	7,000,000
Sale of wood from the public forests, - - -	800,000
Customs only, - - - - - - - - -	1,600,000
Salt-tax, - - - - - - - - - -	1,600,000
Droits réunis, being a very extensive combination of the excise duties, - - - - - - -	4,500,000
Tobacco and snuff, - - - - - - -	1,500,000
Lottery, - - - - - - - - -	280,000
Post-office, - - - - - - - - -	550,000
Miscellaneous receipts and contingencies, - -	300,000
Total for 1816 - -	30,380,000
To form an estimate for 1817, Deduct for various deficiencies and extra-charges a computed sum of - - - - - -	2,000,000
Remain for the revenue of 1817, -	£ 28,380,000

The author of the first-mentioned plan proposed the annual sale, during the four next years, of a part of the public forests, in order to provide a sinking fund to operate on the newly contracted debt: the management of the sinking fund to be totally independent of the public treasury. The demands of the present creditors of the state were, according to this plan, to be met by the issue of Exchequer-bills, bearing five per cent. interest until funded; and the farther excess of the expenditure above the receipt was to be defrayed by annual loans of six or eight millions sterling. M. LAFFOND-DE-LADÉBAT perceived considerable difficulty in this scheme, and proposed loans on a much smaller scale; with the emission of a large quantity of *bons* or government-obligations, bearing five per cent. interest until funded. Of these *bons*, not less than sixteen millions sterling were to be secured on the national forests; without, however, (see his Speech, p. 21.) bringing to market any part of the pledge at a juncture of such distress. To give currency to this new species of paper, M. LAFFOND suggested that it should be accepted as cash in all payments of taxes.

A third plan, and the one that was finally adopted, was to follow the example of England, and to attempt a loan by endeavouring to associate English and Dutch capitalists with the French, in the hope that the confidence shewn by the former would dispel the apprehensions of the latter. 'I am an advocate,' said M. LAFFITTE, 'for the plan of borrowing; sensible that, under the present circumstances, my country is altogether unequal to the task of raising any considerable portion of these extra charges within the year, and that the times are totally unfavourable to a sale of the national forests. I am ready to become a subscriber, provided that ministers act up to their professions of retrenchment, and in such a way as to inspire the public with confidence in the stocks.' The attempt was made, and happily for France was attended with success; the burden of 9 per cent. interest, heavy as it is, being slight in comparison with the mass of individual misfortune that would have overtaken that country in the event of an increase of taxes, or of an attempt at a forced contribution, or, which was dreaded most of all, of a third irruption of the allied forces. Since that time a great rise has taken place in the English funds, and has been followed by a corresponding rise in those of France, for the plain reason that a surplus of disposable capital in one country leads to purchases in the funds of another, and produces a continual tendency to a level; — a level, however, that is subject to very important qualifications, from the estimate of the relative security of different governments. France, divided in political feeling, and unaccustomed to funding transactions on a large scale, cannot hope to see her public credit approach to any thing like an equality with that of England or Holland: but she may reasonably expect to borrow the remaining thirty or forty millions that are necessary to relieve her from the difficulties of the next three years, at the rate of 7 or 8 per cent. According to this computation, she will close the long list of her financial losses and revolutionary struggles with a national debt considerably under 200,000,000l. sterling, but subject to an annual interest of 11,000,000l.; which, making a due addition for the higher value of money in that country, is equivalent to an annual burden of 17,000,000l. sterling in England. This statement, when compared with our own debt, still exhibits a very considerable balance against us: but, on taking a comprehensive view of our situation, we shall find ample grounds for adhering to the opinion which we expressed in M. R. vol. lxxviii. p. 453., that our national power is such as, without the *co-operation of allies*, will "put us very nearly on a footing of equality with that of France, and affords the consolatory prospect that we shall not again have to carry on war from a dread of losing our national independence."

One of the most striking differences in the commercial situation of the two countries is in the nature of their circulating medium. No bank-notes are received in France, except in Paris, and even there the circulation of them is limited: in the country and in provincial towns nothing of the kind is seen, the precious metals being indispensable for all pecuniary transactions. Such are the consequences of the *assignat*-system, and of a continued course of deception on the part of government. If we compute the gold and silver required for the circulation of France at sixty millions sterling more than would be necessary with the use of bank-paper, we ascertain an annual loss of interest, to that country, to the amount of three millions: which, calculated for a century on the plan of compound interest, exhibits a result that at first would be scarcely credible.

Sinking Fund. — M. Laffitte is by no means of the opinion of Dr. Hamilton and others who consider a sinking fund as a delusion, or as necessarily productive of a lavish disposition on the part of ministers. 'Such a fund,' he says, 'may be carried to the length of abuse, and England has perhaps made an indiscreet use of this powerful engine: but France has not at present before her so vast a task as that of combating for the independence of Europe; she has merely to get herself out of financial difficulties, to a serious but by no means an indefinite amount.' Under this impression, he proposed the plan of strengthening the sinking fund by making over the national forests to its commissioners, both as a security and as a source of increased means whenever extensive sales of wood can be effected. This opinion concurred with that of the government; and the sinking fund of France was accordingly carried in the last session to 1,600,000l. per annum, with the prospect of a progressive increase from the appropriation of the interest of the stock bought up.

We shall conclude with a few remarks on the authors of the different tracts and speeches under review. M. de Villèle is an *ancien noble*, who emigrated during the Revolution, and passed a number of years in one of the French colonies; and his property, though greatly impaired by the loss of all that had been sold previously to the re-admission of emigrants in 1802, still affords a sufficient remainder to enable him to aim at a public station, and to be independent of those pursuits of productive industry which are so much less esteemed in France than among us. In that country, the sons of gentlemen, even in reduced circumstances, are destined either to the army or the bar; trade being considered with contempt, the church offering at present no flattering prospect, and medicine being overstocked with a crowd of eager candidates from the *Tiers-état*. M. de V. takes part with the Opposition, on the general ground of the Ultra-royalists, viz. that the King has shewn too much favour to the adherents of the Revolution, and too little to the *noblesse*.

M. Laffond-de-Ladébat is very differently circumstanced, and writes without any particular leaning to the parties who divide the wishes of his countrymen; though, like all who have been in office, or have taken a part in revolutionary debates, he must see with satisfaction a disposition on the side of the executive government to withstand the undue claims of the clergy and the nobles. He is by no means uninstructed in political economy, and can quote our leading authors with considerable familiarity: but, with the majority of his countrymen, his views are too fanciful and his style is too diffuse for a man of business, sixty quarto pages being occupied in the present work with matter which might have been with great ease reduced to half the number. Our fellow-subjects north of the Tweed will be much gratified by a very cordial compliment paid by him (Introduction, p. 17.) to '*la nation Ecossaise, si estimable, si active, et si éclairée.*'

M. Laffitte is well known in a commercial capacity to the travelling part of our countrymen; he is the Mr. Baring of Paris, and maintains the resemblance in point of political feeling, as well as in the magnitude of his financial transactions. The part of his speech that excited most attention was that in which, founding his argument for a loan on the funding system of England, he made in one passage (p. 34.) an allusion to the beneficial effects of removing our James II. from his throne; an allusion which gave great offence to the staunch royalists, on the presumption of its implying that a similar change from the direct order of the succession might be attended with advantage to France. His words do not appear to us to justify this interpretation: but it is clear, from his strenuous opposition to the demands of the clergy, that, like a very considerable portion of his countrymen, he is disposed to be a loyal subject to the Bourbon-government only as long as they proceed on those principles of freedom which have sprung up in France during the last thirty years.

On the whole, the last session of the French Chamber of Deputies was creditable to the talents of the speakers, and indicative of a fair prospect of improvement in the discussion of political topics. In forming an estimate of our southern neighbours in this respect, we should always keep in mind that politics is to them a new science, and one for which they are *à priori* but little qualified; their minds being in general so very fancifully turned that they cannot be said, in the words of Dr. Johnson, to find " their favourite exercise in ratiocination."

The other speakers on financial topics, whose discourses lie before us without our having space to notice them, were *Cardonnel*, *Corbière*, *Cornet d'Incourt*, and *Richard*. All take a similar line of argument on the necessity of public economy, and discover great clearness and ingenuity in the manner of urging their points, without giving evidence of thorough investigation in any particular department of the subject.

ART. VII. *Mémoires de la Classe des Sciences Mathématiques*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the Class of Mathematical and Physical Sciences in the Institute of France. For the Years 1810, 1811, and 1812, in two Parts each. 4to. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

AFTER a long interval, we have again received some volumes of the mathematical labours of the Institute of France, and Vols. I. and II. of the *History and Memoirs of the* Royal *Institute of France, Class of History and Antient Literature.* It will be rather an arduous task for us to make up our arrear-account of the proceedings of this learned body, but we shall endeavour to effect it with all practicable conciseness and celerity; devoting our present article to the two parts of Vol. XI. for the year 1810.

(Part I.) Mathematics and Astronomy.

This volume commences as usual with an analysis of the labours of the class, during the year 1810; the mathematical part being written by M. Delambre, and the physical by M. Cuvier: but it is not so extended as we are generally accustomed to see it; not that any deficiency has prevailed either in the quantity or in the importance of the memoirs of the year, but, most of the subjects discussed being continuations from the preceding volumes, it has been deemed unnecessary to retrace former steps.

Having slightly alluded to the memoirs of MM. *Lagrange* and *Poisson*, relative to the variation of constant arbitraries in mechanical problems, M. Delambre proceeds to an examination of M. *Laplace*'s memoir on "Definite Integrals, and their Application to the Doctrine of Probabilities."

> 'In his researches on the system of the world, M. *Laplace* had been led to some very curious and very philosophical reflections respecting the cause which makes all the planets perform their revolutions in the same direction, and in orbits but little inclined to each other, or, as we may almost say, in the same plane. This principle, whatever it may be, is unknown to us, and we can therefore only attribute it to the will of the Creator, who, in the formation of the planets, impressed on them this common direction. Such an uniformity would appear very singular, supposing it to be the pure effect of chance; and it is much more probable that it is assignable to some cause, as M. *Laplace* has proved by his calculus.'

Supposing that all the planets had in their origin been left to move indifferently in every direction, and that nothing had determined them to that uniformity which they now observe, M. *Laplace* demonstrates that the probability of this state of things is expressed by the fraction 1·0972, divided by the tenth power of 10; viz. by unity followed by ten ciphers, a fraction so small that we have a right to regard it as nothing; and whence results this conclusion, infinitely probable, that a primitive cause has produced that order which we observe in determining all the planets to approach the plane of the solar equator. It is absolutely the same with the rotation of eleven planets, each of which has the same direction as that of the sun. 'If,' he says, 'to all these planets we add their satellites and the ring of Saturn, the probability that the uniformity in the direction of their motions does not exist without a presiding cause is to certainty, which is unity, as unity itself diminished only by a fraction of which the numerator is 1, and the denominator the forty-second power of 2; that is, as $2 : 2^{42} - 1$: in short, it is a probability which scarcely differs from certainty itself.'

The author next applies the same kind of investigation to the case of comets, whose motions are extremely various, being made in all directions both retrograde and direct, and in all possible angles of inclination; and the result in this case is, that the probability for and against a presiding cause is so nearly equal, that we cannot *on these grounds* affirm it to exist: but are we hence to conclude that the production of these bodies is the mere effect of blind chance? and, if the irregularities in the motion of the comets will not allow us to dispense with a first determining cause, as little contrary evidence can be drawn from the uniformity in the motion of the planets. The question is in fact far above the reach of analysis; and we cannot help thinking that the author, while he has displayed great ingenuity and address in his investigation, has shewn but little judgment in the subject which he has selected for the application of those talents. Some other researches, however, of real utility, occur in the subsequent part of his memoir, on which our limits will not permit us to enter in this place.

M. DELAMBRE next refers to M. *Legendre*'s investigations relative to *elliptic transcendentals*; viz. the integrals of differentials applied to one variable, and affected with a square-root radical, under which the variable does not exceed the fourth degree. This memoir we have already noticed in the Appendix to Vol. lxxv. M. R.; as we have also that of M. *Biot* on the effects of atmospherical refraction near the horizon, which next engages the attention of M. DELAMBRE in his analysis. The theory of double refraction, by M. *Malus*, has also been reported by us in the same place; in short, little else occurs in the mathematical branch of the historical part of this volume that we have not mentioned in our former reports of the labours of the Institute; and we shall therefore now proceed to an examination of the several mathematical *Memoirs* of the present volume.

On Definite Integrals, and their Application to Probabilities. By M. LAPLACE. — This is one part only of the memoir to which we have just had occasion to advert, in speaking of the analysis of the labours of the class; where we observed, in conclusion, that, although the question was not in our opinion calculated to add to the celebrity of its author, other parts of his investigation were of real utility and of great importance;

and of these the section which treats of the mean, that we ought to select out of the results of many observations, is more particularly deserving of notice.

Notwithstanding the astonishing progress that has of late years been made in the construction of astronomical and other instruments, the most careful observations and experiments are still subject to inevitable errors; and, in order to diminish their effects, we are under the necessity of multiplying our observations, and combining them in many different ways. When we have thus collected a mass of such results, it becomes an important question to decide what is the best use that we can make of them, which result is the most probable, and what is the limit of uncertainty? This is the question which the present author proposes to himself, and his solution of it is worthy of his talents. He demonstrates that the method of the *least squares*, the discovery of which seems to be disputed between MM. *Legendre* and *Gauss*, ought to be employed in preference to any other, in order to find the most exact mean value of one or many unknown elements among all those that are given by different observations.

(Part II.) *On certain new Optical Phænomena.* By M. Malus.—The polarization of light is an expression familiar to most of our readers, but the clear import of it is not perhaps so well understood; and we shall therefore avail ourselves of this opportunity to give the illustration of it in the words of M. Malus himself, to whom we owe the introduction of the term, and the discovery of the phænomena or modification which it is intended to imply.

'Let us direct, by means of an heliostat, a solar ray in the plane of the meridian, in such a manner that it makes with the plane of the horizon an angle of 19° 10′; let us then fix a plate of glass, not silvered, in such a manner that it reflects this ray vertically from above downwards. Then, if we place below this first glass, and parallel to it, a second plate, the laws of incidence and reflection will make this form with the descending ray an angle of 35° 25′; and the ray will be reflected anew in a line parallel to its first direction. In this case we observe nothing remarkable: but, if we turn the second plate, of which the direction is now north and south, in such a manner that its face is towards the east or the west, without changing the measure of its inclination with the vertical ray, it will then no longer reflect a single molecule of light, either on its first or on its second surface: but, if we still preserve the same inclination, and turn the face of the glass towards the south, it will again reflect the ordinary proportion of the incident light. In the intermediate positions, the reflection will be more or less complete, according as the reflected ray approaches more or less to the plane of the meridian. In these cir-

cumstances,

cumstances, where the reflected ray disposes itself so differently, it nevertheless preserves constantly the same inclination with regard to the incident ray. Consequently, we see here a vertical ray of light, which, falling on a diaphonous body, disposes itself in one manner when the reflecting face is turned towards the north or the south, and in another when that face is turned towards the east or the west, although this face always forms the same angle, viz. 35° 25′ with the vertical direction of this descending ray.

'These observations lead us to conclude that light under these circumstances acquires properties independent of its direction with regard to the reflecting surface, but only relative to the sides of the vertical ray; and which are the same for the north and the south sides, and different for the east and the west. In giving to these sides the name of *poles*, I shall call *polarization* that modification which imparts to light its properties relative to these poles.— It is almost useless to observe that the plane of the meridian is merely chosen for the precision of ideas, and that the reflected ray will undergo exactly the same modifications whatever may be the cardinal direction of the first reflecting surface; that is, the vertical ray will be reflected when the second surface is parallel to the first, or when it is in the same plane, but no reflection will take place when the one forms with the other an angle of 90°.

'I proceed now to a description of the phænomena which form the object of this memoir. Let us consider again the apparatus above described. If we present to the solar ray which has traversed the first surface, and of which a part has been reflected, a looking-glass, so as to reflect from above downwards, we obtain a second vertical ray, which will have properties analogous to the first, but in an opposite direction; for, if we present to this ray a surface forming with its direction an angle of 35° 25′, and if, without changing this inclination, we turn its face successively towards the north, south, east, and west, we may observe the following phænomena; viz. a certain quantity of light will always be reflected by the second surface, but this quantity will be much less when the face is turned towards the north or the south, than when it is placed in an east or a west direction; whereas, in the first vertical ray, we observed exactly the contrary, the minimum of reflected light having there occurred when the face of the reflecting body was in either of the latter positions. Whence, abstracting from the second ray that part which still retains the property of an ordinary ray, and which is equally reflected in all directions, we see that this ray retains another portion of light, which is polarized in a manner exactly contrary to that of the vertical ray reflected by the first glass.'

We must not follow the author any farther in this memoir, but endeavour now to detail the phænomena of which he treats in his second communication, intitled, *On the Phænomena which accompany the Reflection and Refraction of Light.* M. Malus here supposes his apparatus to be adjusted exactly in the same manner as in the preceding memoir, the lower plane being so contrived as to turn with facility about the vertical descending ray, and in such a way as constantly to preserve with it the same angle of inclination, viz. 35° 25′. He then examines all the circumstances that prevail while the second plane is turned entirely round from north to south, and from the latter to the former, and thence demonstrates that the reflected ray has two positions which produce a *maximum*, viz. N and S; and two *minima*, viz. E and W. The refracted ordinary light, however, has four *minima* which answer to the positions N, E, S, and W; and four *maxima*, corresponding to the positions NE, SE, SW, and NW. Having established these facts, the author enters into an examination of the degree of intensity of the reflected ray under different angles of incidence, and with different substances; from which he concludes that 'diaphanous bodies and metals act exactly in the same manner on the rays that they reflect: but the diaphanous substances refract entirely the light which they polarize in one sense, and reflect that which is polarized in the contrary; while the metallic bodies reflect the light which they have polarized in both directions.' It appears also from these experiments that all bodies in nature, without exception, have the property of completely polarizing the light which they reflect, under a determined angle; that this angle is for glass 35° 25′; and that above and below that angle which gives the complete polarization, light still receives that modification, but in a greater or less degree.

On the Axis of Refraction of Crystals and organic Substances. By the Same. — As the experiments contained in this memoir are conducted in a manner similar to that which was followed in the two preceding cases, we shall merely give the conclusion which the author draws from them in his own words:

> 'I arrive at this general result, that all substances are endowed with the property of double refraction, except those which crystallize in a cube or regular octaëdron; and, as these last are by far the fewest in number, instead of forming (as usual) a list of the substances which possess this property, we ought actually to compose the list from those that are deprived of it. This observation may lead to a knowlege of the forms of some substances of which the crystallization is not exactly determined. Thus, congealed water offering an axis of crystallization, it is probable that its form is not that of a regular octaëdron, according to the common supposition.'

M. Malus farther observes that not crystallized bodies only possess this property, but that it appertains equally to all organized bodies; the whole of which have, as we may say, an axis of refraction or of crystallization, as if they were composed.

posed of particles of a determined form, and symmetrically arranged with regard to each other.

On the Method of least Squares. By M. LEGENDRE. — In most questions in which it is required to deduce from measures given by observation the most exact results that they can offer, we are led to a system of equations of the form

$$E = a + bx + cy + fz + \&c.$$

in which a, b, c, &c. are known co-efficients which vary in the different equations, and x, y, z, &c. are the unknown quantities which are required to be found, from the condition that the error E is nothing, or very small, in each equation. If our observations were perfectly exact, it would be sufficient to have as many equations as there are unknown quantities, and we might make E in each equation equal to zero: but the inevitable errors of instruments and observations render it necessary to have many more equations; and it thus becomes a question to find, in the best manner, the mean result. M. LEGENDRE remarks that

'Of all the methods that we can propose for this purpose, no one is more general, more exact, or more easy in application, than that which consists in rendering the sum of the squares of the errors a *minimum.* We thus establish between the errors a sort of equilibrium, which, by preventing the extremes from having too much influence, is well calculated for discovering those values that approach nearest to the truth.

'The sum of the squares of the errors $E^2 + E'^2 + E''^2$, + &c. being

$$\begin{aligned}&(a + bx + cy + fz + \&c.)^2\\ &+ (a' + b'x + c'y + f'z + \&c.)^2\\ &+ (a'' + b''x + c''y \times f''z + \&c.)^2\\ &\times \&c.;\end{aligned}$$

if we seek its *minimum*, first by making only x variable, we shall have

$$o = \int ab + x\int b^2 + y\int bc + z\int bf + \&c.$$

in which $\int ab$ denotes the sum of all the similar products $ab + a'b' + a''b'' + \&c.$; the formula $\int b^2$ denoting in like manner the sum of the squares of the co-efficients of x, viz. $b^2 + b'^2 + b''^2$ &c. If we difference with y variable, we have in a similar way

$$o = \int ac + x\int bc + y\int c^2 + z\int fc + \&c.$$

and the *minimum* with regard to z gives

$$o = \int af + x\int bf + y\int cf + z\int f^2 + \&c.'$$

It is obvious that we thus obtain as many equations as there are unknown quantities, and by means of which the mean values of the several unknown quantities, x, y, z, &c. may be determined. —When we have but one unknown, the method of the least squares becomes the same as that which is generally practised, viz. taking the arithmetical mean. Suppose, for example, that the unknown quantity was x, and that several observations gave a', a'', a''', &c.; the errors would be $E' = a' - x$, $E'' = a'' - x$, $E''' = a''' - x$; and we should have to find

$$(a' - x)^2 + (a'' - x)^2 + (a''' - x)^2 + \&c.$$

a *minimum*, or

$$o = (a' - x) + (a'' - x) + (a''' - x) + \&c.$$

whence $x = \frac{a' + a'' + a''' + \&c.}{n}$ where n represents the number of observations; which is the formula commonly employed in this case.

On the Attraction of homogeneous Ellipsoids. By the Same. —This problem, which consists in determining the attraction of a homogeneous ellipsoid on a given point, presents two general and very distinct cases; the one being that in which the attracted point is situated on or below the surface of the ellipsoid, and the other when it is above it. The first case was resolved by Maclaurin, with much elegance, in his memoir on the flux and reflux of the sea, which shared the prize of the Academy of Sciences in 1740. The other part of the problem has continued to engage the attention of mathematicians ever since, till M. *Biot* lately completed a solution which M. Legendre had left somewhat defective in a memoir published in the volume of the Academy of Sciences for 1788; when, as the latter author states, it was scarcely to be hoped that this theory would acquire any new degree of perfection:

> 'But Mr. Ivory, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1809, Part II., has thrown an entire new light on this subject; demonstrating, by means of a very ingenious transformation, that the attraction of a homogeneous ellipsoid on any exterior point may be referred immediately to that of a second ellipsoid on an interior point. The analytical difficulties which this problem presented, treated in so many different ways, at once disappeared by means of these proceedings of Mr. Ivory; and a theory, which appertains to the most abstruse analysis, may now be exhibited with all its generality, in a manner almost entirely elementary.'

Having paid this well-merited compliment to the talents of the British mathematician, M. Legendre proceeds to his general investigation; in which he combines the demonstration of Mr. Ivory with a solution formerly given by *Lagrange*, and by means of which the general problem receives a still greater simplification.

We take this opportunity of entering our protest against a custom very commonly followed by some scientific Frenchmen, viz. changing the spelling of the names of most foreign authors, particularly those of England. M. LEGENDRE chooses to write Mr. Ivory's name, throughout this memoir, *Yvory*; while in a memoir in the next volume of the Institute we shall find it spelt *Ivori* in some pages, and in others *Ivory*, as it ought to be. The name of Mr. Atwood is generally written *Athwood*, or *Athwode*; that of Mr. Barlow we have seen in one place *Bar*, and in another *Barloow*; and some other names, which do not immediately occur to our memory, have been so transformed that they did not convey to us an idea of the persons that were designed till we recognized them from the context. We know not whether this mis-spelling of proper names may be attributed to affectation, or to carelessness; or whether it arises from a desire to *frenchify* all the names of Europe: but, from whatever cause it may originate, it is extremely improper. If every nation were to assume to itself the same privilege, we should soon have names so confounded that it would be impossible to distinguish one author from another.

GEOLOGY. (Part I.)

Essay on the Mineralogical Geography of the Environs of Paris. By MM. G. CUVIER and ALEXANDER BRONGNIART. — This paper, which extends through 278 pages, and has since appeared in a separate form, has more than ordinary claims on our attention, as relating to a district of country of which the singular geological structure had not hitherto been properly unfolded; and its interesting details have been observed, arranged, and communicated, by the co-operation of two distinguished naturalists, conspicuous at once for tried accuracy of research and for happy powers of didactic writing. The physical boundaries of the territory, which they have so ably and so nicely dissected, include the extensive and elevated range of sandy ground which, under the common appellation of *Beauce*, intervenes between the valleys of the Seine and the Loire, with the interior limits of the great belt of soil; comprizing Montereau, Sézanne, and Epernay, on the east, and Montfort, Mantes, Gisors, and Chaumont, on the west.

The regular and constituent members of this ample basin, reckoned from the lowermost known strata to the uppermost, are chalk, plastic clay, coarse lime-stone, accompanied with marine sand, siliceous lime-stone, gypsum, containing osseous relics, and, belonging to the first fresh-water formation, marine marls, sand-stones and sand without shells, the upper marine sand-stone, mill-stone without shells, and argillaceous sand: the second fresh-water deposition, comprizing shell-marls and mill-stones; and, lastly, alluvial soil, both antient and modern, including rolled pebbles, pudding-stone, black argillaceous marl, and peat-earth. Each of these divisions is described at great length, and, in the second chapter particularly, with special reference to the topography of the district: but we are unavoidably constrained to limit our report to a condensed statement of the more prominent characters and circumstances.

The situation of the chalk is manifestly at variance with the common notion of the recent origin of that substance; since, in the present case, it must have been deposited previously to several formations above it, which bear the marks of having been precipitated at distant intervals of time. Besides its characteristic helemnite, and some species of zoophytes, it contains several kinds of shells, but no univalve, with a single and regular spire, like the cerite. This last circumstance is the more remarkable, because single-spired varieties occur in profusion a few yards higher, and in strata equally calcareous, though of a different structure. Though all the fossils in the chalk have not yet been enumerated and described, the essayists have designated twenty-two species, none of which are found in the lime-stone. The chalk itself is generally fine-grained, soft, and for the most part white: but it is not composed of pure carbonate of lime, that of Meudon having yielded to *Bouillon-la-Grange* 11 per cent. of magnesia, and 19 of silica. It occurs in considerable masses, of which the horizontal courses are often indistinctly defined; besides that they are interrupted by beds of irregularly formed flints, the surfaces of which shade into the chalk, or else by hard and detached siliceous nodules. Being the undermost member of the series, it is not often exposed to view.

Most of the surface of the chalky mass is covered by a stratum of plastic clay, of an unctuous and tenacious quality, varying very much in colour; being sometimes perfectly white, sometimes grey, yellow, red, &c.: containing silex, but very little lime, and quite refractory in the porcelain furnace, except when it happens to be contaminated with a very considerable portion of iron. In thickness, it varies from two or three inches to about seventeen yards. It includes none of the fossil-remains that are found in the chalk, nor does it glide into the latter by insensible gradations.

'From these observations, (say the writers,) we conceive ourselves warranted to infer, first, that the liquid which deposited this bed of plastic clay was very different from that which deposited the chalk, since it contained no sensible portion of carbonate of lime, and did not support any of those animals that inhabited the waters from which the chalk was precipitated.

'Secondly, that there must have existed an essential and marked separation, and perhaps even a long space of time, between the deposition of chalk and that of clay, since there is no transition between these two sorts of soil. The kind of breccia, consisting of fragments of chalk and an argillaceous paste, which we remarked at Meudon, seems even to prove that the chalk was already consolidated when the clay was deposited; this last mentioned earth having insinuated itself among the fragments of chalk produced on the surface by the agitation of the water, or other assignable cause.

'The two sorts of soil which we have just described have therefore been produced in circumstances totally different. They are the result of formations the most distinct and the most decidedly characterized that can be found within the scope of geognosy, since they differ in the several respects of chemical constitution, kind of stratification, and, especially, of included fossils.'

We are told that the coarse lime-stone does not always immediately overlie the clay, being frequently separated from it by a layer of sand, of greater or less thickness, and sometimes consisting of very large grains. The calcareous formation above this sand is composed of alternate layers of coarse lime-stone of different degrees of hardness, argillaceous marl, very thin seams of foliated clay, and calcareous marl, which all preserve their respective rank of superposition; and, though some of them occasionally disappear, or are reduced to great thinness, yet the order of their succession which prevails in one place is not observed to be deranged or inverted in another. This uniformity of distribution, which pervades even the thinnest layers, and which has been observed in places separated from one another by an interval of upwards of seventy miles, is regarded by the authors as one of the most important facts which they have ascertained in the course of their investigations.

Of the coarse and shelly lime-stone, which forms the lowermost stage of this formation, we learn that it is almost always characterized by a green earth, or chlorite, in a pulverulent or granular form; and exhibiting an enormous quantity of fossil-shells, most of which are much more remote from the forms of living species than those which are included in the superior beds. They are, besides, for the most part, easily detached from the rock in which they are imbedded, and so entire as in many instances still to retain their nacred lustre.

They often consist of nummulites, either by themselves or blended with madrepores, and some shells belonging to other species. The middle layers of this formation are less distinctly marked, but still contain a variety of shells. One of them (which is of considerable thickness, sometimes soft and often tinged with a greenish hue, or hard and of a yellowish grey,) frequently exhibits, in its under portions, brown impressions of vegetable leaves and stalks, unlike any known marine plants, and yet blended with cerites, thick *ampullariæ*, and other sea-shells.

'We have examined these impressions of leaves in the company of MM. *de Jussieu*, *Desfontaines*, *Correa*, *Décandolle*, &c.: but the most rigid scrutiny has not enabled us to determine even the genera of plants to which they can be referred; though some of them bear a striking analogy to the leaves of the Nerium. This examination at any rate convinced us that the greater number of these leaves could not have belonged to marine plants, properly so called; yet, nevertheless, they occur in the midst of beds of most perfectly characterized marine lime-stone and shells. With respect to the habitation of the flat-jointed stalks, which are mingled with these leaves, it is doubtful.'

This bed has been traced to an extent of nearly ten leagues. Above it, lie others of a grey or yellowish colour; which are sometimes soft and sometimes very hard, and, though less abundant in shells than the former, yet presenting *lucinæ*, *ampullariæ*, and, on some occasions, an immense profusion of cerites. The next layer, comprized in this division of the system, is of inconsiderable thickness, but hard; displaying, in its horizontal fissures, a prodigious quantity of small, elongated, and striated *corbulæ*, flatly and closely impacted. Some of the calcareous strata, to which we have alluded, inclose, in partial situations, courses of sand-stone, or masses of horn-stone, filled with marine shells. The calcareous beds are even occasionally replaced by this sand-stone; which is sometimes friable and sometimes glossy, with a straight fracture, and often contains great quantities of white, slender, and well-preserved shells, notwithstanding the circumstance of their being mixed with rounded pebbles. Among their numerous varieties, many appear to be analogous to those which compose the enormous assemblage at Grignon, and others to be somewhat different. In this sand-stone, at Pierrlaie, *Gillet Laumont* and *Beudan* first distinctly recognized land and fresh-water shells, particularly *limnei* and *cyclostomas*, blended with marine species. — The essayists enumerate fifty of the most remarkable fossils which belong to the coarse lime-stone department;

but not fewer than six hundred species have been collected and described by MM. *de France* and *de Lamarck.* *

To the uppermost layers of the coarse lime-stone succeed the hard calcareous marls, which divide into fragments, having their surfaces usually covered with a yellow varnish, and black dendistical delineations. Between them are interposed soft calcareous marls, argillaceous marl, and calcareous sand, which is sometimes agglutinated and contains hornstone, with horizontal bands. To this division the authors refer the Neuilly quarries, in which are found quartz crystals, rhomboidal crystals of the inverse carbonate of lime, and small cubical crystals of fluated lime. This upper or marly portion of the formation is but thinly sprinkled with shells.

> 'From the observations which we have stated, it results, 1st, that the fossils of the coarse lime-stone have been slowly deposited in a tranquil sea, since they occur in regular layers, are not intermingled, and most of them, however delicate their structure, are in a state of complete preservation, the very points of the spiny sorts being often entire; 2dly, that these fossils are wholly different from those of the chalk; 3dly, that, in proportion as the beds of this formation were deposited, the species were altered, many having disappeared, and new species come in their place — a circumstance which presupposes a very protracted series of generations of marine animals; and, finally, that the number of species of shells had gradually diminished to the moment when they wholly vanished, the waters which deposited the upper layers having either contained no shells, or having been deprived of the means of preserving them.'

In our existing seas, solid beds, it is observed, seem to be no longer formed; and the species of shells remain the same in the same regions.

Although the siliceous lime-stone stretches over a large tract of country, it appears to have been first indicated to the public by the authors of the present essay. It lies immediately over the plastic clay, neither above nor below the coarse lime-stone, but beside it, and apparently occupying its place, to the east and south-east of Paris; exhibiting distinct courses of soft and white, or else of grey and compact lime-stone penetrated in all directions by silex; insomuch that the sides of some of its numerous cavities are coated with variously coloured mammellated stalactites, or with very short but clear and limpid crystals of quartz, as is prettily exemplified at Champigny. To this formation belongs one description of the *buhr*, or mill-stone, which seems to be the skeleton of a siliceous lime-stone. 'The silex, deprived of its calcareous portion by some unknown cause, has left porous but hard masses, of which the cavities still contain argillaceous marl, and which offer no trace of stratification. We have in fact made artificial mill-stones, by immersing siliceous lime-stones in the nitric acid.' The most distinctive character of this formation, however, is the total absence of animal remains.

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* A valuable paper, from the pen of M. *Brongniart*, and inserted in the 15th vol. of the *Annales du Muséum*, conveys much curious information relative to the extraneous products of the Parisian basin. *Rev.*

The gypsum of the first fresh-water-formation, and the marine marls, are here considered together, because they present every appearance of contemporaneous origin; consisting of alternate layers, which observe the same order of superposition from Meaux to Triel and Grisy. The quarries, which have been excavated in different parts of the field surveyed by these geologists, sufficiently attest that the gypsum is placed immediately above the marine lime-stone. Where it appears above ground, also, on the highest hills of the lime-stone, it obviously rests on it, and forms (as it were) a second hill of a lengthened or conical appearance, and very easily recognized. Its interesting details are most conveniently exemplified at Montmartre; where, in the first place, three masses of gypsum are distinctly observable. Of these the lowermost is composed of alternate layers of gypsum, (which is often selenitic,) solid calcareous marl, and argillaceous marl, of a very foliated texture. It is chiefly in the selenitic gypsum that the large, yellowish, lenticular crystals of that substance are found, whereas the menilite occurs in the foliated marl. It would seem that the inferior portions of this mass were sometimes deposited immediately on the shelly calcareous sea-sand, (in which case they contain marine shells,) and sometimes on a white marly bottom, which had previously covered the marine soil, and which abounds in fresh-water shells. The second or intermediate mass differs from the preceding only in the greater thickness of the gypseous layers, and in the more limited number of those of marl. Among the latter, that of an argillaceous and compact character, and of a mottled grey colour, chiefly involves the exuviæ of fishes, and no other fossils: within its precincts, however, commences the occurrence of sulphat of strontian, in the form of detached nodules. The third or superficial mass, which the workmen denominate the *first*, is much thicker than the other two. Its lower layers contain flints, which graduate into the gypseous matter, and are penetrated by it; its intermediate divisions naturally separate into large prisms, with many faces; and the upper are penetrated with marl, and alternate with layers of that substance.

'In this mass are daily found the scattered skeletons and bones of unknown birds and quadrupeds. To the north of Paris, they occur in the gypseous mass itself, having preserved their solidity, and being invested with only a very thin layer of calcareous marl; but, in the quarries to the south, they are often found in marl that separates the gypseous beds, when they are extremely friable. We forbear to mention the manner in which they are situated in the mass, their state of preservation, their species, &c. because these particulars have been sufficiently unfolded in the memoirs published by one of ourselves. In the same mass have been found the bones of turtles, and skeletons of fish.

'A still more remarkable circumstance, and of much more importance with regard to the consequences to be deduced from it, is that we here also, though very rarely, meet with fresh-water shells. A single instance, indeed, is sufficient to substantiate the opinion of *Lamanon*, and of some other naturalists, who suppose that the gypsums of Montmartre, and of the other hills of the Parisian basin, were crystallized in fresh-water lakes. We shall presently have occasion to state additional facts in corroboration of this opinion.

'Lastly, this upper mass is essentially characterized by the presence of the skeletons of mammiferous animals, which serve to point it out when it is insulated; for we have never been able to find any of them, nor can we learn that they ever have been found in the lower masses.

'Above the gypsum are ranged thick beds of marl, which is sometimes calcareous and sometimes argillaceous.

'It is in the inferior courses, of a white and friable calcareous marl, that we occasionally encounter silicified trunks of palm-trees, lying flat, and of considerable dimensions. From the same department of the stratification, in almost all the quarries about the moat of Chaumont, and even in those to the east of Montmartre, are procured shells of the genera *limneus* and *planorbis*, which scarcely differ from the species that live in our pools. These fossils prove that the marls in question, like their subordinate gypsums, are of fresh-water formation.'

As we ascend in the geological series, we meet with numerous and sometimes thick strata of white marl, either calcareous or argillaceous, but destitute of fossils; — above them, a bed of yellowish foliated marl, exhibiting in its lower portions kidney-shaped nodules of earthy sulphat of strontian; — and, a little higher, a thin layer of small bivalves, closely pressed on one another, and apparently belonging to the cytherean tribe: thus indicating the commencement of a new marine formation. This shelly stratum extends to at least ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, preserving the same thickness and position throughout. The shells included in the various beds of marl that are situated next in the rising gradation are all marine, and blended occasionally with the bones of fishes. In the higher layers, moreover, have been observed fragments of the palate of a species of Ray, and of the sting of another of the same family, allied to the *pastinaca*. To these succeed marine shells, which are exclusively bivalve; and especially two beds of oysters, the first of which consists of a very large species, and the second of a small brown sort.

'These last beds of oysters are wonderfully uniform; and we have not, perhaps, missed them twice in the numerous gypsum-hills which we have examined. We are almost convinced that these oysters have lived in the situation which they now occupy, for they are attached to one another, as in the sea: most of them are quite entire; and, if carefully removed, it will be remarked that many of them still retain both their valves. M. *de France*, in short, has found near Roquencourt, on a level with the formation of marine gypseous marls, round pieces of a shelly calcareous marl, perforated by pholades, and still bearing the oyster shells which were affixed to them. The gypsum-formation is often terminated by a mass, more or less thick, of argillaceous sand, devoid of shells.'

The shell-less sand-stone and sand constitute one of the latest formations, covering the others, and itself usually covered only by the shell-less mill-stone and second fresh-water-formation. The beds of this description of sand-stone are often very thick, and intermingled with strata of sand of the same nature as that which composes the stone. In some cases, the sand is very pure, but in others it is either altered by an admixture of clay, or coloured by oxyd of iron.

Situated not only above the gypsums and marine marls, but even above the shell-less sand-stone, are the upper marine sand and sand-stone. This formation sometimes appears in the state of a pure and friable reddish sand-stone, sometimes in that of red and argillaceous sand, sometimes in that of a grey sand, and sometimes again it is replaced by a thin stratum of sandy lime-stone. It is full of marine shells, of various species, and nearly similar to those of the lower beds of lime-stone. In some situations, however, the casts of the shells only are perceptible.

'When we survey this last marine formation, situated so differently from the others, the singular circumstances which must have regulated the production of the beds just described force themselves on our reflection. If we retrace these beds from the chalk, we, first of all, contemplate a sea which deposits, at its bottom, an immense mass of chalk and mollusca, of particular species. This precipitation of chalk, and of its accompanying shells, ceases all at once; beds of quite a different description

succeed;

succeed; and only clay and sand are in the first instance deposited: but another or the same sea quickly produces new inhabitants, sustains an enormous quantity of testaceous mollusca, all different from those of the chalk, and forms at its bottom thick strata, principally composed of the testaceous coverings of these mollusca. By degrees, this production of shells diminishes, and also entirely ceases: the sea retires, and the land is covered with fresh water: then are instituted alternate strata of gypsum and marl, enveloping, at the same time, the relics of the animals which these lakes support and the bones of those which lived on their margins.

'The sea returns, and, first, affords nourishment to certain species of bivalve and turbinated shells, which disappear, and are replaced by oysters. An interval of time next takes place, during which a large mass of sand is deposited. We have reason to believe either that no organized beings then lived in that sea, or that their spoils have been completely destroyed, since none of their remnants are visible in this sand: but the varied productions of the second inferior sea re-appear; and, on the tops of Montmartre, Romainville, the hill of Nanteuil-le-Haudouin, &c., we recognize the same shells which had been found in the middle beds of the coarse lime-stone.

'At length, the sea wholly retires for the second time; freshwater lakes, or pools, usurp its place; covering, with the wrecks of their inhabitants, almost all the summits of the hills, and even the surfaces of some of the intervening plains.'

The shell-less mill-stone-formation, which is sometimes united with that of the shell-less sand-stone, but more frequently separated from it, consists of argillo-ferruginous sand, greenish, reddish, or even white, argillaceous marl, and of mill-stone, properly so called.

'These three substances seem to observe no particular order of superposition; the mill-stone being sometimes above, sometimes beneath, and sometimes between the sand, or argillaceous marl. The mill-stone, it is well known, is silex, perforated with a multitude of irregular cavities, intersected with siliceous filaments, disposed nearly in the manner of the reticular bony tissue, and lined with a coating of red ochre. These cavities are often filled up with argillaceous marl, or argillaceous sand; and they do not communicate with one another. Most of the mill-stones in the environs of Paris have a reddish, pinkish, or yellowish tinge: but some, which are the most rare and the most valued, are whitish, with a shade of bluish hue.

'In these mill-stones, we have not perceived either any siliceous, mammellated infiltrations, in the style of chalcedony, or any crystallizations of quartz; and this character seems sufficiently adequate to discriminate them, when removed out of their native repository, from the mill-stones of the siliceous lime-stone. Like the latter, however, they sometimes are almost entirely composed of silica. But another geological character of the mill-stone, properly so called, is the absence of all organized animal and vegetable bodies, whether of a marine or a fresh-water description.'

This mill-stone-formation very often reposes on a bed of argillaceous marl, but is occasionally separated from it by a stratum, more or less thick, of shell-less sand, or sand-stone. It is sometimes covered only by the vegetable mould, but it is also frequently surmounted by the fresh-water-formation.

The second fresh-water-formation, in the neighbourhood of Paris, is composed of silex and lime-stone, sometimes distinctly defined, but sometimes blended and (as it were) kneaded together; and both are subject to vary in aspect, hardness, &c.: but the essential characteristic of the formation is the presence of shells appropriate to land and fresh water, almost all corresponding to families which actually reside in our pools, as *limneus*, *planorbis*, turbinated varieties, allied to *cerithium*, *cyclostoma*, *helix*, &c., though, which is remarkable, no bivalves. Some vegetable remains have also been observed, as stalks of reeds, or grasses, and other non-descript productions, which perhaps may be referred to seeds or fruits. The amazing extent of this formation seems to imply not only the existence of enormous masses of fresh water, in some former state of our planet, but their capacity of depositing large beds of lime-stone, marl, and flint; enveloping in those substances the *debris* of organized bodies, and investing them with the characters of the beds in which they were entombed.

With regard to the uppermost and alluvial soil, it is composed of sand of all colours, of marl, clay, or even of a mixture of these three substances, impregnated with carbon. It is also characterized by water-worn pebbles, and, especially, by the remains of large organized bodies, as trunks of trees, and the bones of elephants, oxen, elks, &c.

'Though very modern, when compared with the others, it is still antecedent to the periods of historical record. We may likewise venture to assert that the alluvial matters of the old world in no respect resemble those of the present.'

Chapter III. exhibits a tabular view of the levels of the different formations, illustrated by a plate of their vertical sections; to which are annexed a coloured geognostic chart of the territory explored, and engravings of some of the most remarkable fossil remains described in the text. In short, a more complete, perspicuous, and masterly report of the geological constitution of a district, and more unmingled with hypothetical discussion, has never, we believe, come within the scope of our cognizance. Among some of the corollaries most obviously deducible from its contents, we may notice the fallibility of the Wernerian doctrine of formations; distrust in the theory of universal depositions; the existence of extensive and important physical revolutions, manifested at periods remote from one another; and the veil of mystery which is still interposed between the scrutinizing eye of man and the operations of nature, even in her unorganized domain. At the same time, we cannot refrain from remarking that, in consequence of the regular multiplication of mineralogical surveys, conducted on the same principles and with the same patient and cautious spirit of inquiry which pervade the luminous communication now before us, the science of geology might ultimately repose on the broad and satisfactory basis of fact; while its votaries might comfortably acquiesce in such a theory of the earth as might be compatible with the limited powers of the human intellect, and the imperfect and transitory nature of all human pursuits.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, NATURAL HISTORY, &c. (Part II.)

After his historical sketch, M. DELAMBRE gives an account of the life and works of a deceased member, the celebrated M. *Montgolfier*; the principal events of whose life are these. His father was a paper-maker in a provincial town, had a large family, lived in a very respectable manner, and died at an advanced age. His son Joseph, the subject of this memoir, had not a very regular education, but it was so far scientific as early to inspire him with an ardent taste for mechanics. At the usual period of life, he entered into his father's business, but he does not seem to have possessed a turn of mind adapted for a mere tradesman; and, though he proposed many schemes for the improvement of the manufacture, the cautious disposition of the old man regarded them as chimerical projects, and the affair ended in the son forming a separate establishment. From the tenor of the narrative, it may be concluded that his plans were not very successful in a pecuniary point of view; and indeed it would appear that his attention was more directed to the different branches of natural philosophy than to the routine of trade, his favourite objects being hydraulics and aerostation. In the last of these sciences he made the discovery of the Balloon, which was in itself extremely ingenious, which excited the greatest astonishment in the minds both of the learned and the unlearned, and which acquired for the inventor a degree of temporary reputation that has seldom been equalled. His first public exhibition was made at Paris on the 5th June 1783. His balloons were filled with air rarefied by heat, which he effected by burning straw and wool under the mouth of the apparatus; and, although subsequent experience has led to the use of hydrogen gas, instead of merely rarefied air, the merit of the original invention is not diminished.

Another great discovery by *Montgolfier* was a machine for raising water, called the hydraulic ram; a less splendid invention than the balloon, but more really ingenious, and probably of more real utility. M. Delambre informs us that the class of sciences belonging to the Institute conferred on M. *Montgolfier* the decennial prize for this instrument.—These two are his only scientific labours that are noticed by the reporter, but they are sufficient to intitle him to the rank which he has obtained among the scientific men of the age.

M. Cuvier commences his historical sketch of the proceedings of the physical class in the year 1810 by the following observation: 'Few years have been as fertile as the last in varied and important works on the different branches of the natural sciences; and, from the more general parts of natural philosophy to the particular history of the species of the three kingdoms, the discoveries of our colleagues, or those which have been submitted to the class by learned strangers, have added new stores to the system of our knowlege.' Under the head of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry, the reporter begins by giving an account of a memoir of M. *Dessaignes* on phosphorescence, which gained the prize of the preceding year. Phosphorescence is defined to be 'a durable or a fugitive appearance of light, which is not accompanied by sensible heat, and is not followed by any alteration in inorganic bodies.' Its different species are arranged under four heads, corresponding to the particular causes which excite them; 1. Phosphorescence by Elevation of Temperature; 2. Phosphorescence by Insulation; 3. by Collision; and 4. Spontaneous Phosphorescence. We have then some observations on the different kinds of phosphorescence, considered separately. With respect to the first, the writer endeavours to shew that it has some connection with combustion, at least when it occurs in organized bodies, because it is increased by the presence of oxygen: but still it is an essentially different operation. He is disposed to refer its immediate cause to a modification of the electric fluid, which, being distributed through the particles of the body, is expelled by the application of heat; an opinion which we are inclined to regard as very problematical. The light which is emitted by certain bodies, after having been exposed to the sun's rays, or the second species of phosphorescence, is also referred, at least in part, to the same cause with the first. The light produced by collision is attributed to a different source, and is conceived to be different in its nature; it is supposed 'to depend on a fluid eminently elastic, closely united to all the elements of gravitating matter.' The author describes it as being the primary cause of the expansion of bodies; and it appears to be what is usually styled the matter of heat, although he does not apply this term to it. With respect to spontaneous phosphorescence, it is attributed to a kind of slow combustion, in which water and carbonic acid are generated.

We are informed that M. *Sage* has given to the class the results of his experiments on the degrees of heat which the concentrated mineral acids produce, when they combine chemically with different bodies: but it may be imagined that the experiments are not very accurately performed, since he has neglected to notice the specific gravity of the fluids on which he operated, before and after the experiments. M. *de Morveau* has presented a set of tables, which profess to contain the final result of all his researches on the various topics connected with temperature; the melting and vaporizing points of different bodies, the comparative dilatation of the metals by heat, a comparison of their dilatibility with their fusibility, and other similar subjects.

Next occur some details respecting the progress of Galvanism, an account of the apparatus in the Polytechnic school, and the experiments that were made with it by MM. *Gay-Lussac* and *Thénard*: but these are so well known, that it will be unnecessary to particularize them; and the same remark applies to the experiments of M. *Bérard* and others, on the proportions in which different bodies combine. The processess that were employed by M. *Berthollet*, and afterward by MM. *Gay-Lussac* and *Thénard*, for the analysis of organized animal substances, are next detailed, and that of M. *Vauquelin* on vegetables; the conclusion drawn from which is, with respect to the first, 'that fibrine, albumen, gelatine, and caseous matter, contain carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and azote, in the proportions exactly necessary to form water and ammoniac; — with respect to the latter, that the differences between common sugar, the sugar of milk, and gum, do not consist solely in the presence or the absence of azote, but depend on the varied relations of the other elements of these bodies; and it is this which remains for us to determine by experiments that are now commenced.'

Under the head of Mineralogy and Geology, the researches of M. *Cuvier* himself, in conjunction with his associate M. *Brongniart*, hold a conspicuous rank. The important discovery which they made, in the paper already mentioned on the strata round Paris, that some of the deposits of shells contain only the shells of such animals as inhabit fresh water, is stated as a fact entirely new in the history of the globe, and of great importance in the formation of our geological theories. The remaining topics mentioned in this section are of less moment.

In vegetable Physiology and Botany, we have an account of the speculations of M. *du Petit-Thours*, on the different parts of the stems of plants, the bark, the alburnum, and the medulla; and we are told that his opinions generally agree with those of Mr. Knight. M. *Mirbel*, we are informed, is pursuing his inquiries into vegetable physiology, to which he has so long and so successfully bent his attention: he has been engaged in tracing the connection between the mechanical structure of plants and their natural families, and in attempting to arrange them according to their physiological and anatomical characters. In estimating the general characters of vegetables, he conceives that those which are derived from the organs of vegetation, and those from the organs of reproduction, must both be necessarily considered in our classification; whereas the celebrated system of Linné proceeds almost entirely on the last of them. M. *Mirbel* illustrates the plan which he deems it proper to pursue in these researches, by an arrangement of the labiate plants; in which he employs characters drawn from every part of the vegetable, external and internal, as well as from the successive changes of structure and functions to which each of them is liable. It is well known that botanists have been much disposed to refer the great classes of plants to the number of cotyledons in the seeds, and we have some observations from M. *Mirbel* on this subject. We are informed that M. *De Candolle* has established two new families of plants, the *ochnacées* and the *simaroubées*, of which he has written the monography.

In the departments of Anatomy, Animal Physiology, and Zoology, we have an account of some experiments by M. *De Laroche*, jun. and M. *Berger*, on the temperature of animals, when they are kept in a medium warmer than themselves. It was found that, when the transpiration was prevented, the temperature of the body was augmented; and it was consequently concluded that the supposed production of cold is not correct. On the subject of respiration, we meet with a report of a controversy that has been carried on between MM. *Dupuytren*, *Dumas*, *Legallois*, and others, concerning the effect produced on the action of the lungs, by dividing the eighth pair of nerves. M. *Nysten* has performed some experiments on the influence which different kinds of gases exert on the animal economy, when they were injected into the blood-vessels or serous cavities of the body. M. *Cuvier* has himself made some important observations on the class of animals that are without vertebræ, particularly the scorpions, of which we have a detail; as well as on the family of the spiders. Notices are also given of some observations by M. *Peron* on the mollusca, M. *Bosc* on intestinal worms, and of M. *Blainville*, and M. *Geoffroy-Saint-Hilaire* on various topics connected with natural history.

The classes of Medicine and Surgery supply some remarks of M. *Percy* on wounds of the groin, of M. *Portal* on apoplexy, on the work of M. *Pelletan* on general surgery, of M. *Sabatier* on surgical operations, which are much commended, and lastly of M. *Dumas* on the cure of periodical epilepsy by bark. The historical sketch concludes with some notices of less importance on agriculture and technology. To the history succeeds an eloge on the celebrated *Fourcroy*, by M. CUVIER.

Fourcroy was born at Paris in the year 1755, of a family respectable for its rank, but labouring under pecuniary embarrassments; so that it was with considerable difficulty, and only (as it were) by an accidental concurrence of events, that he was enabled to devote his life to the pursuits of science. He was educated for the profession of a physician: but some peculiar circumstances prevented him from entering into regular practice; and he commenced his career, early in life, as a lecturer in chemistry. His talents in this department appear to have been great; and, making a reasonable allowance for the degree of commendation which is necessary for an eulogy, we may conclude that the following description is founded in fact:

> ' The grand scientific establishments of this capital, (Paris,) where celebrated masters explain to a numerous and judicious public the most profound doctrines of our modern sciences, recall to our recollection some of the most noble circumstances of antiquity. We may conceive of the existence, at the same time, of those assemblies in which a whole people was animated by the voice of an orator, and those schools in which select persons came to penetrate the oracles of a sage; the lecture-room of M. *de Fourcroy* completely effected this double resemblance: Plato and Demosthenes appeared to be united there, and the eloquence of the one or the other of them is necessary to give an idea of his merits. Connection in his method, copiousness in his elocution, nobleness, justness, elegance in his phrases, as if they had been carefully selected; rapidity, splendor, novelty, as if they had been suddenly inspired; a voice flexible, sonorous, silvery, yielding to all emotions, and penetrating into all the recesses of the largest auditory; all this excellence nature had given him. At one time his discourse flowed with equability and majesty, and the grandeur of his images and the

pomp of his style were imposing; at another time, varying his accents, he passed insensibly to an ingenious familiarity, and recalled the attention by traits of an amiable gaity. Hundreds of auditors, of all classes and of all nations, might be seen to pass whole hours, pressed one against the other, almost fearing to breath; their eyes fixed on his, and suspended from his mouth, as the poet says, "*pendent ab ore loquentis;*" his fiery glance penetrated through the whole crowd; he was able to distinguish in the most distant part the sceptical mind which was yet doubting, or the slow mind which did not comprehend; he amplified for them his arguments and his images; he varied his expressions until he could meet with such as could strike them; his tongue seemed to multiply its riches; and he did not quit a subject until he saw a numerous audience completely satisfied.'

The reporter then details the numerous discoveries which M. *Fourcroy* made in the different departments of science. He was certainly one of the most active of the set of experimentalists, whose labours tended to establish what has been styled the new chemistry; while, at the same time, he did not neglect the collateral branches of natural history, mineralogy, &c. His writings are very numerous, and may be characterized as generally useful when they were published, and as tending to promote the knowlege of those subjects on which they treated: but they were always rather verbose and deficient in accuracy, and will not stand in competition with the more correct productions of some of his contemporaries. It may be concluded that vanity was an ingredient which entered in no small degree into his constitution; a circumstance which is, indeed, plainly inferred in the following remarks of his eulogist:

'During his whole life, he had attached more regard to the opinions of others than perhaps was proper for a man of learning and a statesman; and, in his excessive desire of not displeasing, he made no exception of persons. A word uttered relative to him in the smallest circle, or an article in a journal, had the power of distressing him almost as much as some grievous disappointment. He was even hurt at the readiness with which the young chemists criticized his works, as if he expected to find a *Vauquelin* in each of his pupils, at a period when it was extraordinary to have met with one instance of so complete a devotedness.'

He died in the end of the year 1809, and has left a character, both moral and scientific, which, when it passes into the annals of sober biography, will be very respectable, although not without blemishes. — We proceed to the Memoirs.

Considerations on Seeds and on Germination, containing the Substance of different Memoirs which the Author has read to the Class, from 1808 *to* 1812. By M. Mirbel.—As this paper does not profess to contain much that is new, with respect either to facts or to opinions, we need not give a very detailed analysis of its contents. It commences by a short description of the various parts of which the seed consists. First, the envelopes, under which denomination are included the arilla, testa, and tegmen. Then we come to the internal and more essential parts of the seed, the perisperm, and the embryo, which last may be regarded as the organ to which all the others are subservient. Embryos are then considered according to their structure, either as they are monocotyledonous, dicotyledonous, or polycotyledonous, and we have an account of the local situation which the seeds of the different kinds respectively bear to the cotyledons.

In the second part of the paper, the germination of seeds is considered. The process is detailed with considerable minuteness; first, of all descriptions of seeds generally, and afterward of the different species according to the number or nature of their cotyledons; and lastly of some of the cryptogamia. The materials of this paper are certainly valuable, and it is desirable to see the whole of the author's opinions on vegetable physiology, collected into one essay of moderate length: but M. *Mirbel* is either ignorant of the discoveries on the subject that have been made in England, or entirely disregards them.

A new Genus in the Class of intestinal Worms. By M. Bosc. — The worm in question was found by M. *Legallois* attached to the lungs of the Guinea-pig, and has the generic name of Tetragulus given to it from its peculiar structure. Its scientific character is as follows: 'Body claviform, a little flattened, composed of a great number of rings bordered below with short spines; mouth inferior, placed towards the largest extremity, and accompanied on each side by two large hooks, moveable from above downwards; anus terminal.'

Description of the Dipodion, a new Genus in the Class of intestinal Worms. By the Same.—This new animal was discovered by M. *Labillardière* in the body of a bee, and was found by M. *Bosc* to be distinct from any hitherto known. It is thus described: 'Body soft, oval, articulated, slightly flattened, terminated behind by two soft points, and before by two great tubercles, kidney-shape and granulated, each of them pierced by an oval hole: mouth transverse, placed across, and a little below the interval of the tubercles.'

Notice of a Bed of Corundum. By M. Lelièvre. — This rare mineral had hitherto been certainly found only in China, Bengal, and Malabar, when the author conceived that he detected it in some specimens of rocks sent to him from Piedmont. It was imbedded in granite, composed of amorphous feld-spar, with a little silvery mica, and was in nodules of various sizes, the largest being equal to a hazel. It was analyzed by M. *Vauquelin*, and was found to consist of 92 parts in the hundred of alumine, 4.8 parts of silex, and 2.4 of the oxyd of iron, but it was deemed probable that the silex might be derived from the mortar in which it was pounded.

Report made by M. Berthollet, in the name of a commission, respecting Physico-Chemical Researches.—The attention of the reporters was directed to the "Researches" of MM. *Gay-Lussac* and *Thénard*, a work of great merit, both with respect to the number of discoveries which it contains, and to the philosophical views which it displays on science in general. The report is admirably drawn up, and must have been very interesting when it was written: but, as we have long been in possession of the work itself, and have indeed given an account of it in one of our former volumes, it will be unnecessary to dwell on this abstract. M. Berthollet must be regarded as one of the most candid of his countrymen; and as disposed to do justice impartially to all others, who have been engaged in pursuits similar to those which occupied the attention of the two experimentalists whose publication he examines.

Considerations on vegetable and animal Analysis. By M. Berthollet. — The author here observes that two methods have been adopted in the analysis of vegetables; the one has been to separate the constituents of the vegetable by different solvents, and thus to endeavour to procure each of them distinctly, and in this way obtain a knowlege of the nature of the whole: the other has been to subject the body in question to the action of fire, and thus to resolve it into its ultimate elements. The former has generally been employed by the modern chemists, and has led to many very interesting results: but M. Berthollet thought that some advantage might be gained by having recourse to the old method of destructive distillation. For this purpose, a given quantity of sugar, oxalic acid, or any other substance, was heated, and the products were made to pass through a red-hot porcelaine tube; they were then carefully collected and examined, as was likewise the residue in the retort; and from the result an estimate was formed of the original composition of the body. The products were charcoal, water, carbonic acid, and oxycarburetted hydrogen: the composition of all these bodies is well known, and, by a simple calculation, the total amount of carbon, oxygen, and hydrogen may be ascertained. The process indeed requires a complicated apparatus, and great accuracy in the operator: but we may presume that due attention was given to these points, and that we may place full confidence in M. Berthollet's conclusions. The analysis of animal substances is to be conducted on the same principles: but, being more involved, it requires more care, and is perhaps scarcely susceptible of equal accuracy. The author informs us, with his accustomed candour, that, since he performed his experiments, an improved plan of analysis has been practised by MM. *Gay-Lussac* and *Thénard*, by which his own is entirely superseded.

We propose to take up Vol. xii. in our next Appendix.

Art. VIII. *Nouvelles Observations*, &c.; *i.e.* New Observations on Bees, by Francis Huber. The Second Edition, revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 840. With Plates, in 4to. Paris.

Some years have elapsed since we briefly noticed the contents of the first of these volumes *, in the form of an English translation; and a still longer period has intervened between the first publication of the work and the appearance of the present enlarged and improved edition. The prolongation of this interval is partly to be attributed to the demise, first, of *Bonnet*, and, subsequently, of *Sennebier*, whose friendly and enlightened counsels had contributed to guide the author in the path of inquiry, and whose approbation had cheered and animated his exertions. *Burnens*, too, the humble but zealous and ingenious associate of his labours, yielding to the urgency of domestic calls, had removed to his native district, in which he was selected by the suffrage of his fellow-citizens to exercise the functions of first local magistrate. Under these circumstances, the additional materials of the second volume might never have seen the light, had not the younger Huber, who seems to inherit his father's ardour and diligence of research, undertaken to revise them and commit them to the press. With this view, he appears to have interchanged and blended his own sentiments with those of his father, and to have submitted all the leading facts and statements to the test of experiment and personal observation; so that we may regard these new results of patient and discriminating investigation as the joint production of the father and the son, and as claiming in course additional confidence.

The introduction might, with more propriety, have been incorporated with that part of the work which relates to the architecture of bees; since it treats expressly of the fabrication of the cells and combs, and gives an outline of the *modus operandi*, with a reference to the plates. Philosophers had long since remarked, with astonishment, that the plan of construction adopted by these insects reconciles the greatest possible economy of matter and space with the requisite degree of solidity in the texture of the cells. By what means, it has been asked, are such little labourers enabled to prosecute such a regular design, or how do their multitudes act in concert, so as to effect such a nicely adjusted arrangement? *Buffon*, with more eloquence than soundness of reasoning, laboured to resolve the mystery into blind mechanical instinct, or rather into mechanical necessity. His arguments are here met by those of *Bonnet* and *Mairan*, who are willing to allow some degree of sagacity to the insects themselves: — an opinion, the truth of which can scarcely be contested, when it is known that they change their mode of proceeding with the change of circumstances. On either supposition, however, the power and wisdom of the Deity are equally manifest; since to his appointment we must ultimately attribute the origin and maintenance of those laws, whatever they may be, by means of which the race of these insects is perpetuated, and their wants are regularly supplied.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. Vol. lii.

In the course of the first and second chapters, the authors unfold the history of their new opinions concerning the formation of the wax, and the experimental proofs on which these opinions are grounded. Although the commonly received notion, which ascribes this substance to the elaboration of the pollen of flowers, had received the sanction of observers not less distinguished than *Bonnet* and *Réaumur*, yet the Lusatian Society, so far back as the year 1768, appear to have been in possession of the important fact that the wax, instead of being discharged from the mouth, is secreted in the form of thin scales among the abdominal rings, or segments. In 1792 the celebrated Mr. John Hunter detected the genuine reservoir of the wax under the belly of the bees, and gave an account of his observations in a paper inserted in the Philosophical Transactions. On elevating the lower segments, he observed plates of a fusible substance, which he ascertained to be wax; and he was convinced that an essential difference exists between the pollen, which these little creatures collect with so much care and industry in the form of pellets on their thighs, and the matter of which the combs are constructed. These were, doubtless, important steps in the path of discovery: but the present authors have advanced much farther; for they have demonstrated the organs in which the wax is secreted, — organs which had eluded the perspicacity of *Swammerdam*, Hunter, and other acute anatomists, but which are now minutely explained, and illustrated by engravings. These sacklets, or small compartments, are peculiar to the working bees, which alone produce wax; and each individual is furnished with eight of them: but we cannot render any account of them very intelligible without the assistance of the plates. The waxy matter, as it occurs in a transuded state in the secretory organs, differs from the fresh wax of the combs only in being of a less compounded nature, which has been inferred from trials with spirit of turpentine and sulphuric ether.

During the prosecution of their reflections on the origin of the matter of wax, it had occurred to the authors that the common opinion was probably erroneous; because, like Hunter, they had observed swarms, newly placed in empty hives, construct their combs without fetching home any pollen; while the bees of old hives, where no fresh cells were required, nevertheless provided an ample stock of the powder in question. In order, however, to determine the point more directly, they confined a recent swarm within an empty straw-hive, leaving at their disposal only a sufficiency of honey and water for their consumption, and preventing them from going beyond the precincts of a well-closed room; when, in the short space of five days, they had constructed five cakes of a beautiful white though very fragile wax. As this experiment, when repeated and prolonged, was uniformly accompanied by similar results, no doubt could remain that honey, through the organic intervention of bees, may be converted into wax. For the purpose of ascertaining whether vegetable pollen, also, was susceptible of this conversion, the honey was entirely removed, and the confined bees were fed on fruits and pollen, of which last a large magazine was left at their disposal: but, though they continued in this situation during eight days, they neither made any wax nor exhibited any plates under their abdominal rings.

As the authors had suspected that the secretion of wax originated in the saccharine principle contained in honey, they had recourse to a variety of experiments, which constantly proved that sugar alone was an excellent substitute for honey, and, on some occasions, afforded a superior wax.

In consequence of much accurate examination, it was found that, even when perfectly at liberty to roam abroad, bees act precisely on the same principle in the construction of their combs; and a new fact in the natural history of these insects was brought to light, namely, that in each hive are two descriptions of labourers.

'The first, susceptible of acquiring considerable dimensions when they have received all the honey which their stomach can contain, are principally destined to the elaboration of the wax; while the second, whose abdomen undergoes no sensible change of bulk, neither gather nor retain more honey than is necessary for immediate subsistence, and readily share that which they collect with their companions: who take no charge of storing the hive with provisions, their appropriate office being to tend the young. We shall call them nursing or small bees, in contradistinction to those with dilated bellies, and which are intitled to the appellation of *wax-workers.*

'Although the external characters, by which these two sorts of bees may be distinguished, are far from numerous, the distinction itself is not imaginary. Anatomical observations have convinced us that a real difference exists in the capacity of their stomach; and we have ascertained, by direct experiments, that bees of one description only are incompetent to discharge all the functions which are shared among the common labourers in a hive. In one of our trials, we painted those of each class with different colours, in order that we might observe their conduct; and we never saw them exchange duty. In another case, we supplied with a brood and with pollen the bees of a hive that was deprived of its queen; and we instantly perceived the small bees occupied in feeding the larvæ, whereas the wax-manufacturers paid no attention to them.

'When these hives are filled with combs, the wax-working bees disgorge their honey into the usual magazines, and produce no more wax: but, if they have no receptacle in which they can deposit it, and if the queen finds no cells formed ready for the reception of her ova, they retain in their stomachs the honey which they had amassed; and, at the end of twenty-four hours, the wax oozes out between the rings, when the fabrication of the combs commences.'

The nursing bees also produce wax, but in a much smaller quantity than the others.

From various experiments next reported, it manifestly appears that the pollen is collected for the purpose of feeding the young. It seems to have been likewise ascertained that bees, fed too long on the syrup of sugar alone, are incapable of rearing their offspring, and at length desert the hive.

The waxy matter, when yet only secreted and moulded in its appropriate organs, differs from real wax in being transparent like scales of talc, white, and quite friable, or brittle; whereas that of which the cells are composed is of a yellowish-white, opake, and flexible. Before, however, the authors proceed to explain the causes of these changes, they shew by an accurate survey of the different parts of the insect employed in working, and of the waxy plate, that none of them can furnish a type or model of the forms of which the cells are composed; and that the animal is endued with sufficient intelligence to fashion the figures from its own internal conceptions. By means of a glass apparatus, properly modified, an opportunity was afforded for contemplating the operations of the bees, in commencing and conducting the construction of their combs; a spectacle which had been denied to *Réaumur* and other sagacious observers. MM. Huber observe:

'We saw a labourer detach herself from one of the central wreaths of the cluster, push her way through the crowd by putting her companions aside, thrust with her head till she drove off the leaders of the file that adhered to the middle of the dome, and, by turning round, form an empty space in which she could move with freedom. She then suspended herself to the centre of the vacancy which she had produced, and of which the diameter was about twelve or thirteen lines. We then beheld her instantly seize one of the plates which projected beyond her rings; for which purpose she approximated one of the legs of the third pair to her belly, held it directly opposite to her body, opened the nipper which we have described, dexterously insinuated the tooth of its brush under the plate which she intended to remove, closed the instrument, extracted the plate of wax from the cavity in which it was lodged, and afterward conveyed it to her mouth by the claws of her fore-legs.

'The bee now held this plate in a vertical direction; and we observed that she turned it between her teeth by means of the hooks of her fore-legs, which, being fastened to its opposite margin, could give it a suitable direction. The proboscis, bent back on itself, formed a point of support; contributing, by its alternate elevation and depression, to bring all the portions of the circumference under the sharp edge of the jaws, so that the margin of this plate was speedily bruised and broken. The particles of wax which were detached from it immediately fell into the double cavity, bordered with hair, which we noticed in our description of the teeth of bees. These fragments, pressed by others freshly cut, receded from the side of the mouth, and issued from that sort of drawing machine, under the form of a very narrow ribband. They then came in contact with the tongue; and this organ impregnated them with a frothy liquor, like pap; performing the most varied manœuvres during the process, and assuming all sorts of forms, being sometimes flattened like a spatula,—sometimes, like a trowel, applied on the ribband of wax,—and sometimes, again, presenting the appearance of a pointed brush.—After having smeared all the matter of the ribband with the liquor with which it was loaded, the tongue pushed forwards this wax, and forced it a second time through the same drawing passage, but in the contrary direction; thus communicating to the wax an impression which brought it again under the cutting portion of the jaws, by which it was once more comminuted.

'The bee ultimately applied these small parcels of wax to the ceiling of the hive. The gluten with which she had impregnated them facilitated their adhesion: with a stroke of her teeth, she then separated them from those which had not yet been wrought, and, with the point of the same instrument, she disposed them in the direction which she intended them to retain. The liquor, which she blended with the wax, imparted to it a whiteness and opakeness which it wanted when extracted from the rings; and the obvious design of the mixture was to communicate to the wax that ductility and tenacity which it possesses in its perfect state.

'The founding bee (a truly appropriate appellation) continued this manœuvre until all the fragments which she had hacked, and impregnated with the whitish humour, were attached to the ceiling; she then began to turn between her teeth the rest of the plate which she had kept separate during the impregnation of the ribband; and all the portion, which had remained untouched in the first operation, was employed in this, and in the same manner. The labourer fixed under the ceiling the particles which she had just prepared, placed others under and beside the first, and stopped not till she had exhausted the matter which this plate supplied. A second and a third plate were put in requisition by the same bee: but the work was merely sketched, and only presented materials capable of receiving any form: the labourer took no pains to compress the particles of wax which she put together, being satisfied if they only adhered to each other, which they did with scarcely any effort.

'In the meantime, the founding bee quitted her station, and was lost among her companions. Another, with wax under the rings, succeeded, suspended herself to the very spot at which her predecessor had just been working, laid hold of one of the plates by means of the nippers of her hind legs, passed it between her teeth, and resumed the operation. She did not deposit at random the fragments of wax which she had masticated, but being regulated by the little heap that had been arranged by her companion, she placed her own in the same direction, and united them by their two extremes. A third labourer detached herself from the inner layers of the cluster, suspended herself to the ceiling, reduced some of her plates into a soft paste, and placed the materials which she had at her disposal near those which her companions had just accumulated, but without arranging them in the same manner, for they made an angle with the former. Another labourer seemed to perceive this deviation, and, under our own eyes, lifted that misplaced wax, to convey it near to the first heap, disposed it in the same order, and followed precisely the directions which had been indicated. The result of all these operations was a block, with rugged surfaces, which descended perpendicularly from under the ceiling. We could as yet perceive no angle, nor any trace of the figure of the cells in this first operation of the bees.'

As the subsequent proceedings were concealed from view by the clusters at the top of the hive, the authors, ever fertile in expedients, so contrived the internal dispositions of a hive, that the bees were constrained to rear their cakes from the bottom, upwards, by which means the formation of the cells was exposed to view. The various stages in this wonderful process are distinctly recorded in the volume before us, but with such frequent references to the plates that we must be contented to recommend the original to the careful perusal of the curious reader. The whole account, it will be readily perceived, is a direct confutation of the flimsy suppositions of *Buffon;* since it proves, by ocular demonstration, that each cell is regularly sketched, and perfected in its proportions, by the accurate diligence of individual bees: who ascertain the correctness of their workmanship by their antennæ, and accommodate the structure of the bases of the first ranges of cells to the exigences of their attachment to the hive. Though they work with great rapidity, their labours are not conducted by a general or simultaneous impulse, but individuals relieve one another, and are directed in their operations by the constructions of those who have preceded them. It is also highly deserving of remark that, in ordinary cases, their architectural talents are exercised in the dark, as if their wonderful fabrics were adjusted by feeling. The apparent anomalies in the forms and dimensions of some of the cells, observed by *Réaumur*, *Bonnet*, and other naturalists, are now found to be the effect of deliberate design; and to constitute the graduated passage from a series of equal and symmetrical cells, destined for the workers, to those of larger dimensions for the males, and from these back again to the symmetrical, so as not to present any rough projections or mar the arrangement of the structure. To this shifting mechanism they have recourse whenever the queen lays the eggs of males, or when an abundant crop of honey requires more than usual store-room. In the latter case, they not only widen the diameter of the cells but lengthen their tubes, insomuch that some of them will measure twelve, fifteen, or even eighteen lines in depth. On other occasions, again, they shorten their cells, as when they wish to eke out an old comb; for then they uniformly diminish the thickness of the edges, so as to give a lenticular shape, and thus have it incorporated with the addition, without those projections which would impede their operations.

The difference of aspect and consistency, between cells just formed and those which are of older standing, cannot fail to attract the attention of every observant apiarian. The former, in fact, are of a dull white colour, semi-transparent, soft, and even, without being smooth: but, in the course of a few days, the whole of their internal surface assumes a yellow tint, of greater or less intensity; their sharp edges become thicker and less regular; and those tubes, which at first could not resist the slightest pressure, grow flexible, somewhat more heavy, and more difficult of solution in hot water. Few of our readers, however, may be aware that the contour of the orifice of mature cells is bound with a rim, of a reddish and odorous resin, which is also employed to cement the angles of other parts of the cell. This solder, or varnish, is found, on chemical trial, to be identical with the propolis, and quite distinct from the wax. Messrs. HUBER have not only established this important fact, but detected the origin of the propolis itself.

'In the beginning of July,' says the writer, 'I was furnished with branches of the wild poplar, which had been cut in spring, before the developement of their leaves. Their buds were very large, externally varnished, and filled with a viscous, reddish, and odorous juice. I planted these branches in vessels, which I placed before my hives, in the line of the bees' passage to the fields, so that they could not fail to perceive them. In less than a quarter of an hour, a bee, availing herself of the opportunity, alighted on one of the branches, and approached one of the largest buds; when we saw her separate its folds with her teeth, attack the parts which she had half-opened, pull off filaments of the viscid matter with which they were filled, then seize, with one of the legs of the second pair, the substance held between her jaws, bring forwards one of her hind-legs, and, finally, place in the basket of that leg the little ball of propolis which she had just collected. Having accomplished this object, she again opened the bud in another place, carried off new threads of the same matter with her teeth, laid hold of them with the legs of the second pair, and placed them nicely on the other basket. She then took her departure, and rejoined her hive. In a few minutes afterward, a second bee alighted on the same branches, and loaded itself with propolis in the same manner.'

This observation led to others, not less interesting, and which were followed up by the most satisfactory experiments. Among the unexpected results which were thus obtained, we may notice the difference between propolis and the matter which imparts the yellow colour to the wax, which is probably secreted in the cavity of the teeth, and deposited on the wax. Bees, however, are not contented with merely painting and varnishing their cells, but also impart additional solidity to their aggregate amount by the use of a mortar, composed of wax and propolis; and which the antients, who had not overlooked this department of their economy, termed *metis*, or *pissoceron*. By observing the particular circumstances in which the insects had recourse to this strengthening material, the authors have ingeniously reconciled the apparently contradictory assertions of Pliny and *Réaumur*: but a statement of the details would lead us greatly beyond our due bounds.

The ravages occasioned in a hive by the attacks of the death's-head moth, (*sphinx atropos*, Lin.) during the night, and the simple method of excluding these large and destructive insects by perforated tin-sliders, form the subject of a separate chapter. When some such expedient as that which has just been mentioned has been neglected, the bees themselves construct barriers, of a mixture of wax and propolis. These petty erections are sometimes in the form of a perforated wall, and sometimes imitate the style of minikin fortifications, with passages accessible to the bees, but too much straitened for the dimensions of their nocturnal invaders. It is also deserving of remark that, when the moths disappear, these ramparts are demolished, and cleared away. Now, it is only in particular districts of country, and even perhaps at considerable intervals of time, that the *sphinx atropos* is observed to occur; so that the occasional precautions adopted by the occupants of the hive cannot, with any propriety of reasoning, be resolved into the principle of blind mechanical impulse.

As the closeness of a hive, and the multitude of living creatures which inhabit it, (amounting sometimes to twenty-five or thirty thousand,) are circumstances which seem to preclude a free ventilation and renewal of air, we might be tempted to suppose that bees are not endued with any particular system of respiratory organs, and that they are capable of existing in any atmosphere, however vitiated. To put this supposition to the test, the authors had recourse to various experiments; which incontestibly prove that these insects cannot long exist either *in vacuo* or in air that is contaminated by noxious gases; that, in short, they breath like other animals of their class; and that they are speedily deprived of life if the process of respiration be arrested. Yet it results, from eudiometrical trials, that the air of a well-stocked hive is equally pure with that of the atmosphere. It has been ascertained, too, that neither wax nor pollen favours the production of oxygen gas, and that the bees themselves have no internal faculty of generating vital air; since, if that of the atmosphere be entirely excluded, they are observed to perish in the course of a few hours.

'We judged it proper, therefore,' say the authors, 'to examine whether the industry of these insects presented no particular cause of this phænomenon; and, after having considered all those which appeared to us most likely to fulfil this object, and being at the same time convinced of their insufficiency, we were struck by the connection which might subsist between the circulation of the air and that beating of the wings which we had also recently observed, and which occasioned a continual humming in the interior of their habitation. We suspected that the play of these membranes, which impress the air with sufficient force to elicit from it a very distinct sound, might be destined to replace that which had been vitiated by respiration.

'But could a cause, apparently so trivial, counteract the inconvenience proceeding from the respiration of the bees, and from the nature of the place which they inhabit? Such an hypothesis appears, at first sight, to be inadmissible: but, when we reflect on the constancy and energy of these movements, we shall find perhaps a simple and happy explanation of the phænomenon in question. If we put our hand near to a fanning bee, we shall perceive that she agitates the air in a very sensible manner, and moves her wings with such rapidity that we can scarcely distinguish them. United at their edge by means of small hooks, the two wings of each side present a larger surface to the air, on which they have to strike; they form, besides, a slight concavity, which should somewhat contribute to increase their energy; and we may be satisfied that they describe an arch of 90°, because we see them, simultaneously, in the two extremes of their vibrations. When engaged in this exercise, the bees cling fast to the stand with their legs; the first pair being projected forwards, the second separated and fixed to the right and left of the body, while the third, closely approximated, and in a direction perpendicular to the abdomen, contribute to support the hinder parts in an elevated position.

'During the *fine season*, we may always observe a certain number of bees agitating their wings in front of the entrance to their hive: but we may also be convinced, by inspection, that still more are employed in fanning within their dwelling. The ordinary station of the ventilating bees is on the lower floor of the hive. All those which are occupied in this way, on the outside, have their heads turned towards the entrance, but those within present their back to it.

'These bees seem to arrange themselves methodically, in order that they may manage the ventilating process with the greater ease; being distributed into files, which terminate at the entrance of the hive, and are sometimes disposed like so many diverging rays: — but this order is not uniform; and it is probably owing to the necessity to which the fanning bees are subjected of leaving room for such as go and come, whose rapid course constrains them to form in file, to avoid being jostled and overturned at every instant.

'More than twenty bees may sometimes be seen ventilating in the lower part of the hive: but their number, at other times, is smaller; and each of them vibrates her wings for a longer or shorter period. We have seen them continue the exertion during twenty-five minutes, without resting; although they seemed occasionally to take breath by suspending the vibration of their wings for an almost imperceptible instant: but, as soon as they cease from fanning, others take their place, so that the humming noise in a well-filled hive never suffers interruption.'

The very sensible manner in which small anemometers were affected by this alar ventilation, the circumstance of its being continued during the winter, and the production of currents of fresh air by the play of artificial machinery analogous to that of the wings of insects, sufficiently confirm the deductions of these ingenious naturalists.

In the chapter on the external senses, and particularly on that of smelling, in bees, are introduced some judicious observations on the very different nature of the impressions which may be conveyed to the insect-tribes by means of the organs of sense, from that of those with which we are furnished through the same channels. The singular faculty which bees possess of smelling honey at a considerable distance, or even when concealed from their view, and their capacity of collecting without inconvenience or injury their sweet juices, or of allaying their thirst, in the midst of odours and emanations which would prove sickening or deleterious to ourselves, are striking illustrations of the actual existence of such differences. From the experiments with which these observations are accompanied, we have reason to suppose that the organs of smell in the present family of insects are seated within the mouth, or in some of its appendages. Their sense of touch is obviously very acute and delicate; since, with their antennæ and feet, they seem to judge of the accuracy of their labours in the dark. Their powers of vision, in like manner, are probably of signal service in guiding them in their wanderings, and in directing them homewards; when, notwithstanding the rapidity of their flight, they discriminate with undeviating certainty their own hive from among many others. Whether they possess any faculty of hearing is still problematical, though it is commonly believed that tinkling noises contribute to keep them together when swarming.

The uses of the antennæ are no doubt very important; since, when deprived of them, the bees (not excepting the queen) become stupid and unserviceable. By means of these organs, indeed, a system of signs or language seems to be carried on, which is understood throughout the community, and is uniformly adopted in cases of emergency and danger.

In the concluding chapter, MM. Huber place on a firm foundation the heretofore much contested doctrine propounded by *Shirac*, relative to the sexuality of the working bees. That they are provided with two ovaries, and are females imperfectly developed, are positions susceptible of anatomical demonstration; and that they are capable of producing only males is a physiological fact, which is found to accord with the analogous history of other apiarian families, with that of the ant-tribes, and in general with that of insects which live in communities. The illustration of this part of their subject naturally invites the authors to vindicate the reputation of *Shirac* from the inconsiderate and illiberal insinuations of Professor *Monticelli* of Naples, and to award the due meed of praise to the Lusatian observer. A tribute of approbation, not less merited or less ample, we most cordially bestow on the apiarians of Geneva; of the record of whose labours the preceding very cursory analysis can exhibit but an imperfect outline. Their wonderful discoveries, which are evidently the fruit of no ordinary talents for inquiry, and of no common share of patience and perseverance, would tempt us to infer that the study of entomology, as far as it relates to the manners and habits of the countless species which it embraces, is still in the dawn of its progress; and that thought and intelligence, variously modified, pervade the minutest portions of animated matter. Considered, however, in the light merely of a literary production, the work before us is in some respects objectionable. The epistolary form, adopted in the first volume, is abandoned in the second; the pronouns *je* and *nous* are carelessly blended; and the punctuation and typography are frequently inaccurate. We certainly could have welcomed, also, a more methodical and consecutive arrangement of the materials, and greater purity and elegance of style. Yet these are very subordinate considerations, when put in competition with the quantity of new and valuable information which the authors have conveyed to the public, and for which it will ever remain highly indebted to them.

ART. IX. *Histoire des Sectes Réligieuses*, &c.; *i. e.* A History of the Religious Sects which have sprung up, undergone Modifications, or become extinct, in the Four Quarters of the Globe, from the Commencement of the Eighteenth Century to the present Time. By M. GRÉGOIRE, formerly Bishop of Blois, Member of the Institute, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l.

EVEN the first leaf of this work exhibits a testimonial of its merit, which will not be lost on those who have appreciated the character of the late government of France; viz. a notice of its having been seized by Napoleon's police in the year 1810, and restored to its author only in the month of June 1814, in consequence of the overthrow of the Imperial power. The censor would probably deem it a waste of time to read farther than the following passage of the preliminary discourse: (p. xxv.) ‘The splendor of military talents may bestow on a nation a transient preponderance: but for its real strength, its true happiness and glory, it must be indebted to peace, and to the sciences of which peace promotes the improvement. Every thing is linked together in the system of human knowlege; and a state which allows itself to fall behind its contemporaries, in the cultivation of any one branch, sinks in the political scale and even risks its internal tranquillity.’ The *Ne imprimatur* of a government which never endured any thing favourable to civil or religious liberty, but as a means for the ultimate destruction of both, is a better attestation of the liberal tendency of M. Grégoire's writings than whole pages of panegyrical Latin verses, or the approving signatures of a synod of divines.

The endless variety of sects into which Protestants have diverged, since they left the bosom of the Catholic church, is regarded by her advocates as one of the strongest arguments of the evil effects of the Reformation. Though the universality which she claims to herself is a mere fiction of language, and the uniformity of doctrine which she opposes to the infinite ramifications of schism is contradicted by almost every century in her history, yet the contrast held out has had and is calculated to have a powerful effect on those who are led by the sound of words. Even Protestants themselves, bewildered by certain vague notions which they have connected with the word *Church*, and not understanding the true principle of the Reformation, have sometimes borrowed this argument from the Catholics to use it against separatists from their own communion, and have felt alarm lest truth should ultimately be lost amid the increasing diversities of opinion. Milton, who by his comprehension of the true principle of Christian liberty belonged (like Bacon) to a later age, has noticed in his Areopagitica the hopes and fears of the enemies and friends of the Reformation in his own times; and we will not do his sentiments the injustice of putting them into any other language than his own: “Some good men fret, and out of their own weakness are in agony, lest these divisions and subdivisions should undo us. The adversary again applauds and waits the hour; when they shall have branched themselves out, saith he, small enough, into parties and partitions, then will be our time. Fool! he sees not the firm root out of which we all grow, though into branches, nor will beware until he see our small divided maniples cutting through at every angle of his ill-united and unwieldy brigade. And that we are to hope better of all these supposed sects and schisms, and that we shall not need that solicitude, honest perhaps though over-timorous, of them that vex in this behalf, but shall laugh in the end at those malicious applauders of our differences, I have these reasons to persuade me." (Works, vol. i. 8vo. p. 323.)

It was the object of *Bossuet*, in his *Histoire des Variations des Eglises Protestantes*, to press the reformed churches with the argument from their own want of uniformity; and if it had possessed any real force in his hands at the end of the seventeenth century, it would have become irresistible in those of his continuator at the beginning of the nineteenth. Indeed, almost every sect which existed, when *Bossuet* wrote, has subsequently either subdivided itself into a multitude of others, or has departed from what was then the standard of its faith; while new varieties have sprung up and propagated themselves, under the protection of those tolerant principles which, in a greater or less degree, have influenced the Protestant governments of Europe during the period of which we are speaking. Some of these, that have taken their origin among the vulgar, have been disgraced by the wildest fanaticism, and yet have spread with a rapidity proportioned to their absurdity; while, in others, a more silent and studious process has led to a general rejection of all that is supernatural in the history of Christianity. Between the Welsh Jumper and the German critic, therefore, the advocate of the antient faith cannot fail to find abundance of arguments to shew that those, who stray from its fold, expose themselves to be the prey either of a cold scepticism or a frantic enthusiasm.

M. Grégoire has long been preparing a continuation of *Bossuet*'s History, and the two volumes now before us are the precursors of his larger work. Under an historical title, they are really in part polemical, and therefore will require our notice in both these characters. The author has shewn a degree of diligence in collecting his materials from the theological literature of every modern nation, which places his production far above all the Sketches, Dictionaries, and Histories of the varieties of religious opinion which we have hitherto seen; and he is too candid and upright wilfully to warp facts to the support of his cause: but a polemical application is given throughout to the history of every sect; and the *moral* of the whole is the pernicious consequence of trusting to our reason in matters of religion. By whom, but by a Catholic, could such a division as the following have been proposed? 'We may class modern sects under two great branches; the one including those who have a propensity to Deism; Calvinists, Lutherans, Anabaptists, Socinians, and Unitarians; — the other, those who lean to enthusiasm; Pietists, Methodists, Swedenborgians, Shakers, Jumpers,' &c. (Prel. Disc. lxxi.)

We have examined M. Grégoire's publication with the greater interest, from the curiosity which is naturally felt at the present moment respecting the state of religious feeling and belief in France; since it is in vain that the rest of Europe looks for permanent repose, if the system which its rulers have leagued themselves to support in that country be repugnant to the wishes of the people and the spirit of the age. The Catholic religion, after having seen itself degraded and its ministers proscribed during the excesses of the Revolution, and having been, during the reign of Napoleon, the humble slave of despotism, is beginning to appear again as the partner and ally of the civil power. With what dispositions is she about to re-ascend the throne of temporal dominion, from which she was before hurled as much through her own arrogance and corruption as by the fury of her enemies? Has she appreciated the progress which the human mind has made during the period of her humiliation? Is she prepared to modify those claims which an enlightened age will otherwise receive with indignation and contempt; to prevent any excitement in men to investigate the foundation of her privileges, by the mildness with which she uses them; to enter into amicable union with learning and philosophy, and to respect the rights of conscience;—or are her institutions and her temper so much at variance with the spirit of the times, as to be preparing for her a second overthrow at no distant period? These are questions which we look to a work like that of M. Grégoire for the means of answering; though we are, indeed, aware that we must not attribute his liberality on many points to all his Catholic countrymen; while we fear that few of them are exempt from his prejudices on others.

The author's principles of toleration are such as we should expect from one who has lived through the Revolution, and borne that part in it which he has sustained. We could quote various passages which breathe the same spirit as the following:

> 'We must not confound civil and religious toleration. The latter supposes that truth and error are indifferent, which truth can never be, for it is only one; and this being the case, religious toleration would be an affront to God, who is truth itself. *Civil* toleration is that which grants to every one the power of

publicly exercising the mode of worship to which he is attached; an inalienable right of every member of society, and which, incorrectly denominated *toleration*, ought to be called *liberty of worship*. It has been already observed, and it cannot be too often repeated, that the only authority which the civil magistrate possesses over religious associations is to see that they neither suffer molestation nor molest one another.' (Vol. ii. p. 182.)

Could we be assured that M. GRÉGOIRE here speaks the sentiments of all Catholics, rulers and subjects, laymen and ecclesiastics, we should feel it to be of little importance whether the church did or did not maintain her antient dogmas respecting the impossibility of salvation beyond her pale. A belief in a man's own infallibility, accompanied by a persuasion of the right and duty of forcing others to the same belief or profession of belief, is a state of mind which we view with horror: but, existing alone, it deserves only to be ridiculed like any other effusion of inordinate self-conceit, or pitied like any other instance of mental hallucination. It is in this way that liberal principles have gradually obtained currency. Men suffer their actions to be accommodated to circumstances, long before they are prepared to renounce their abstract principles; and a century may intervene between the time at which a persecuting statute has become a dead letter, and that at which the public feeling would allow of its repeal. In such cases, it is unwise as well as unnecessary to endeavour to wring prematurely from the pride of mankind a confession that they were once in the wrong; and it would perhaps have the effect of provoking them to return to their forgotten follies, in order to prove that they are not ashamed of them. The root may safely be left to moulder of itself in the earth, when once the tree has been cut down which permitted no other growth beneath its shade. — M. GRÉGOIRE is not prepared to abandon the infallibility of the church, which would, indeed, be equivalent to a renunciation of popery: but he endeavours to soften and modify it as much as he possibly can; and we are willing to forgive him some bad logic for the sake of this good intention. 'The uncertainties of mankind on religious subjects,' he observes, (Prel. Disc. lxxxiv.) 'have been fixed by an authority which commands not an implicit belief, but a belief resting on proofs of its infallibility.' Are we, then, or are we not, to exercise our individual reason in judging of these proofs? If not, we may as well receive authority implicitly at once, as be satisfied with proofs which we must not examine. If we may accept or reject them as they appear satisfactory or not, how has the author failed to perceive that he allows that very use of reason in judging of truths alleged to be divine, which, according to *Mosheim*, is the essence of

Socinianism; or, as he retorts on the Chancellor of Göttingen, (i. 101.) the essence of the Reformation? He has not enabled us clearly to ascertain where this infallibility resides, and still less how it is obtained. We expect to find a Gallican bishop denying that the Pope is the depository of it: to confound the Catholic church with the Pope is, according to him, to bring the antipodes together; and he repeatedly complains of the injustice of the Protestant writers in speaking of *popery* and *papists.* It resides, we presume, therefore, in general councils, legitimately convened. If their infallibility be absolute and perfect, we would ask how the aggregation of fallible parts produces an infallible whole? If it be derived from a divine illumination, we wish to see the proof from Scripture that such aid was promised, and from ecclesiastical history that it has been enjoyed. If the infallibility of councils mean nothing more than that superior chance of being right which attaches to men who are familiar with a particular branch of knowlege, over those who are strangers to it, and to a collective body over an individual, the claim is very harmless but also very useless; belonging equally to many other bodies whose decisions it is no impiety to question, — Cabinet Councils, Royal Societies, Encyclopedists, — and Reviewers. The Ex-bishop is not, we think, more fortunate in his attack on the Protestants for their rejection of tradition:

> 'Protestants reject tradition, though their own conduct is at variance with their maxim: for it is on the authority of tradition that they maintain the observance of Sunday, and the baptism of infants; on which last point, however, they find it difficult or rather impossible to reply to the Anabaptists, who maintain the baptism of adults only. "The Bible," says Chillingworth, "is the religion of Protestants:" but have they not received the Bible itself by tradition?' (ii. 231.)

Protestants do not reject tradition even as the means of ascertaining the sense of Scripture. Let the reader judge by the following passage from a treatise included among the Prolegomena to Walton's Polyglott, and sanctioned by his insertion of it, though not written by himself; — probably reprinted from the work of some Catholic, as the name of the Pope has been pasted over in the quotation which we are going to make: — "*Quarto, ex traditione vel interpretatione S. Ecclesiæ, ex decretis conciliorum, &c. ex consensû SS. Patrum et illorum vel multorum vel paucorum sanctitate et eruditione prælustrium, ex unanimi conspiratione doctorum et interpretum, sæpe constare potest de vero et literali sensû Sacræ Scripturæ.*" P. 48. So far is it from being true that tradition is absolutely rejected by Protestants, as it respects the doctrines of Christianity, that the great heresiarch of modern times, Dr. Priestley, wrote many volumes expressly to prove that the tradition of the apostolic and primitive ages was favourable to his views of the person of Christ; and scarcely any sect has existed, possessed of sufficient literature to write ecclesiastical history, which has not had recourse to this mode of justifying its creed. It is true that Protestants will not allow Catholics to decide for them what has been the tradition of the Christian church, nor to produce tradition as evidence where Scripture speaks positively; and here they think they act according to those rational rules which persons prescribe to themselves in other cases. If a man has lost his title-deeds, he may fairly be allowed to bring witnesses to prove what a dog-keeper belonging to his grandfather * was heard to say about them: but, if they be in existence, perfect, and legible, what court of justice would listen to a *tradition* of their contents? It seems, however, that Protestants are inconsistent in receiving the Scriptures on the authority of tradition, and yet refusing to interpret them according to the same standard! This sophism is unworthy of M. Grégoire. We have indeed received the Scriptures by the tradition of successive ages of the Christian church, as we have received the works of Homer by the tradition of the rhapsodists who sang them through the Ionian cities, of the Athenian princes who reduced them to order and multiplied copies of them, of the Alexandrian critics who formed editions of them by the collation of MSS., and of the Byzantine grammarians and monkish scribes from whom our present text is immediately derived:—but does this oblige us to receive every senseless gloss and tasteless scholium which they may have written in the margin?

We observe the same inconsistency and feebleness of reasoning wherever the author touches on the principles of Protestantism, and we can attribute it only to the inherent weakness of his cause. He is like a combatant in a modern field of battle, covered with the chain-armour of the feudal times. The faith which he has inherited from the dark ages, and the liberal principles to which his own disposition and the spirit of the present times incline him, accord very ill together: *non bene conveniunt, nec in unâ sede morantur;* and he is evidently embarrassed between them. We fear that he will hardly accept our invitation to become a Protestant, and free himself at once from all these perplexities: yet we see no other way in which such a liberation can be accomplished;

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* *Tale of a Tub.*

and he needs not renounce a single article of his present creed in order to make the change, except his acknowlegment of the authority of the church as something distinct from that of reason and Scripture. He may retain transubstantiation and purgatory, and still be a Protestant, if he believes these doctrines because he thinks that he finds them in the Bible.

A preliminary dissertation is prefixed to the first volume, which scarcely answers the purpose for which its place seems to designate it,—that of giving the reader a clue and principle of arrangement to the details which follow; since it is occupied in a great measure with an anticipation of matter that belongs more properly to the several chapters of the history itself. The atheists and deists of France occupy a prominent place in it, and the author does not spare them: but he makes concessions which shew that the fault was not all on one side:

> ' From the time of Louis XIV., the bishops, the candidates for a mitre, and those who coveted rich benefices that they might devour the patrimony of the poor, had been guilty of the meanest adulation. Never did a court-preacher quote the celebrated harangue of the prophet Samuel, to inculcate their duties on the rulers of the nation. One of the basest of these flatterers was *Boux*, Bishop of Perigueux; and, if his example had many imitators, his eloquence is not more attractive than that of a multitude of funeral orations, none of which undertook to celebrate unassuming virtue, but to sound the praises of *high and puissant princes*, under whom commonly the earth had groaned. Truth, the daughter of Time, has taken vengeance both on the heroes and their panegyrists. Many of the higher orders of the clergy had entered into a compromise with scepticism on several articles of faith; and it can scarcely be said that the morality of *Bernis* was over-rigid when he wrote these verses:
>
> " *Rions des préceptes sauvages*
> *De nos censeurs trop rigoreux;*
> *Nous serons toujours assez sages,*
> *Si nous sommes souvent heureux.*"
>
> ' The friend of *La Pompadour* became afterward a sort of saint, in consequence of his refusal to take the oath of 1791. *Brienne*, who, without being a better man than *Bernis*, did take it, had almost given the right hand of fellowship to philosophy in his thesis, maintained at the Sorbonne in 1751; and which was followed by that of the Abbé *de Prades*, on the 8th of November in the same year. Instead of confining themselves to the censure of any thing that was hostile to religion in these theses, the bishops and the parliaments imputed it to them as a crime that, under the auspices of common sense, they had maintained, like Pope Alexander III., St. Lambert, Bishop of Utrecht, St. Edward, King of England,

England, St. Thomas, St. Vincent Ferrier, Gerson, Almain, Major, &c. &c., that the supreme authority resides in the people by whom it is delegated*; and this obstinacy in attempting to reconcile irreconcileable things, despotism and Christianity, was one of the causes which irritated the philosophers, and served them as a pretext for their attempts to destroy the foundations of religion.' (Prel. Disc. xxx.)

As a proof of the inveterate fury of these philosophers against Christianity, M. Grégoire mentions their project of rebuilding the Temple of Jerusalem, in order to effect the falsification of our Saviour's prophecies; and no one, he says, any longer ventures to deny the existence of this scheme. We could, however, have wished for some better proof than this *argumentum ad verecundiam:* because, though the personages in question were little accustomed to study the Scriptures, we think that it could scarcely escape their observation that, as our Saviour only predicts the ruin of the Temple, but by no means that it should always remain a ruin, they were engaging in a very expensive scheme to fulfil the prophecies of the Old Testament, instead of defeating those of the New: to say nothing of the risk, which would probably appear less to them than to the present author, of being scorched by a remnant of the fire which compelled the workmen of Julian to desist.

M. Grégoire begins his history with the *Sandemanians*, or *Glassites*, and passes from them to the *Methodists* in their two great branches and their minor divisions, especially in America. The Wesleians occupy a disproportionate share of the article, to the exclusion of the followers of *Withfield*, as the author calls *Whitfield* throughout, according to the antient and laudable custom of his countrymen in mis-spelling exotic names. He appears to have consulted the principal works from which authentic information was to be derived; and we are therefore the more surprized that he condescended to copy not fewer than sixteen pages from such a book as *Lackington's Confessions;* the style of which is surely many degrees below the dignity of ecclesiastical history. He quotes also, on the authority of *some* biographer of Wesley, but whom he does not name, a love-letter addressed by Mr. W. on his eighty-first birth-day to a young lady aged three-and-twenty. It was particularly incumbent on him to have carefully selected and quoted the authority for so strange a document; because, if Wesley really wrote in the style of this letter, with one foot and three-quarters in the grave, we should scarcely hesitate to pronounce that he had always been an hypocritical sensualist, a character which his authentic history does not warrant us to attribute to him. It is difficult for a foreigner, to whom the names of the authors of books are unknown, to judge of the credit which is due to them: but, in the present instance, the internal evidence against the letter in question having been written by Wesley is so strong, that M. GRÉGOIRE was bound to have excluded it from his history, or distinctly to have stated on what authority he gave it a place.

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* We are not aware on what occasion the Confessor made this remarkable declaration. Has M. Grégoire, like his countryman *Mehegan*, (Vol. I. 156. Eng. Tr.) attributed Magna Charta to this prince, and then concluded, from the absurd manner in which it is often mentioned as the standard of the constitution, that it recognizes the sovereignty of the people? *Rev.*

The *Scotch Seceders* follow the Methodists; and from the preliminary observations we quote the following passage:

'The church of England has made vain efforts to bring back within her pale the Presbyterian Dissenters of every denomination: who oppose to her, as an unanswerable argument, the ground on which she justifies her own separation from the Catholic church. They admit no rule of faith but the Bible, and claim the right of private judgment. It has been observed that those societies which dissent from the episcopal church, and among whom are always a great number of distinguished men, shew the warmest zeal for civil, political, and religious liberty; and they are almost all of what is called the *Opposition Party* in politics. Yet in general they are more hostile than the church towards the Catholics; and, if they had regained those rights to which they have so just a claim, there are among them individuals disposed to refuse the same rights to the Catholics: — so much does passion get the better of reason.

'Although the church of England contains tolerant men among her prelates, she has been frequently tempted to strengthen by persecution the feebleness of her arguments against the Dissenters. The British isles are that part of Europe in which persecution is most firmly established by law. Ireland has suffered martyrdom for centuries because she is almost wholly Catholic. When the light of justice shall dawn on these countries, and when legislation in harmony with reason shall have restored to all men the unalienable possession of equality in civil and political rights, how unjust, how absurd will the test-laws and the act of supremacy appear!' (P. 50.)

Pudet hæc opprobria nobis Et dici potuisse et non potuisse refelli: but may we not hope that, to adopt the author's allusion, "the night is far spent, and the day is at hand?"

What a contrast to the spirit of the preceding quotation appears in a passage from the next chapter, which has for its title *Universalists* or *Latitudinarians, Consistent Universalists,* *Pharisaic Universalists* *, *Bourneans.* We should premise that the writer's observations are not strictly applicable to the dispute between the Universalists and their opponents, which is not the question who are to be condemned hereafter, but what is their ultimate destination.

> 'On this subject, the Catholic faith is irrevocably fixed, and all the efforts of error will be vain against this principle of her doctrine which so much irritates unbelievers, "there is no salvation except in the church," as there was no safety except in the ark of Noah which was its type. The church disavows, and perhaps will some day again anathematize, the errors of three prelates, *La Luzerne*, formerly Bishop of Langres, *Du Voisin*, Bishop of Nantes, and *Della Torre*, Archbishop of Turin, who approved the scandalous discourse of *Sineo*. The Saviour declares that no one cometh to the Father but through him, and that he who believeth not shall be condemned. St. Augustine, and in later times *Arnaud*, have fully developed this necessity of faith in Jesus Christ. It is to be found in purity only in the bosom of the Catholic church, which, as ages revolve, sees schisms and heresies spring up, attack her, and become extinct, while she herself remains the pillar of truth.' (i. 82.)

When a man of M. GRÉGOIRE's benevolence and piety denies the possibility of salvation to all who are not within the ark of the Catholic church, not leaving them even (as Dr. Mant expresses it) "to the uncovenanted mercies of God," we must conclude that he has endured a painful struggle between his reverence for the character of the Universal Parent, and the deference due to what he supposes to be the express language of his word. May the prevalence of a better system of biblical criticism ere long convince him, and the worthy men of other communions who hold the same exclusive doctrine, that the passages on which they depend have no relation to the final salvation or condemnation of mankind; and that reason and revelation are not in that hostility on this subject in which they are generally supposed to be! As far as we can judge from these volumes, biblical criticism is at a very low ebb in France. In his account of the Roskolniks, a sect of the Greek church, the author mentions, as a proof of their profound ignorance, that in one of their service-books, which was undergoing a revisal, these words were found; "he that is baptized with the Spirit, and with water, *and with fire;*" and that the proposal of striking out the last clause excited such horror among these simple people, that they ran through the streets, crying out that, to punish this impious attempt, the element of fire was about to be extinguished in the whole universe. (ii. 302.) M. GRÉGOIRE smiles at this excessive zeal for a received text: but is his own much more according to knowlege, when he opposes the authority of Calmet to all that Porson and *Griesbach* have written to shew the interpolation of the Three Heavenly Witnesses?

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* We do not see with what propriety the author gives these two as historical appellations, the one being evidently the compliment of a fellow-believer, and the other the nickname of an adversary. All sects are consistent, in their own judgment; most of them Pharisaic in the judgment of others.

We shall pass over the accounts of those sects of which the history is more commonly known, in order to reach the account of others with whom general readers are less acquainted. The second volume contains a very full history of the once celebrated *Theophilanthropists*, which possesses an unity of a peculiar kind; the sect having sprung up, flourished, and become extinct, within a short part of the period of which the author writes. He has also had advantages for knowing their history which could fall to the lot of very few: his political connections with all the principal men of the Revolution having opened to him sources of personal information and inquiry on many points; and his rank as a senator and a bishop having made all public archives, civil and ecclesiastical, readily accessible to him. This part of his book appeared in a German translation by Professor *Staudlin* of Göttingen in 1806, from the author's MS., but never till now in French. The *Temple of Nature*, opened in Margaret-street in 1776 by the lately deceased David Williams, for worship on deistical principles, appears to have suggested to the unbelievers of France the idea of a ritual and liturgy of deism, which was first carried into execution in the year 1796. The resemblance of the principles of some members of the sect to those of *Robespierre*, and of its ceremonies to the worship of the goddess of Reason, have given occasion to some persons to represent the Theophilanthropists as partizans of the tyrant, and their meetings as jacobinical clubs: but the author vindicates them as a body from this charge. The person who first gave a plan for the celebration of the rites of natural religion appears to have been *D'Aubermenil*, a romantic enthusiast, who wished to revive a part of the doctrines of the antient Magi. In his work intitled *Culte des Adorateurs*, which is at once a rubric, a liturgy, and a treatise of morals, eight days are appointed for labour, and the ninth for rest: but the temples were to be constantly open, and the sacred fire kept burning in them with the most religious care. The priests, whose costume was carefully prescribed, were to offer to the Deity grain and fruits of different kind, salt and oil, and, turning to the four cardinal points, to pour libations and make apostrophes to the elements. The twelve signs of the zodiac were to be painted on the walls of the temple, (in the new nomenclature, the *asylum*,) and, under each, thirty butterflies, to represent the number and the shortness of our days. Sacred dances were to be performed at certain periods; the elderly men leading off with the matrons, the young men and the virgins following. At funerals, a libation was to be poured out to the manes of the deceased, and the eldest of his relations was to throw water on the fire, addressing the element in a formula to which we are fearful of not doing justice in a translation. "*Effet et cause du mouvement de la nature; décompositeur dangéreux, élément puissant et vaincu; serviteur ennemi mais nécessaire; sors, pour l'instruction des hommes, des corps que tu avais penétrés de ta substance.*" *D'Aubermenil* proposed to denominate his followers *Théoantropophiles*, which was afterward changed to *Théophilantropes*, a less legitimate compound, but rather more sonorous: though obnoxious, as M. GRÉGOIRE records, to the bad *calembourg* of *Des Filoux en Troupes*. The first place of meeting of the society was at the Blind Asylum, Rue St. Denis; a circumstance which could not escape the wits of Paris, any more than its name. As the churches had all become national property, the Theophilanthropists applied to the civil authorities to obtain the use of them jointly with the Catholics; and the request was readily granted, on condition that each party should remove the emblems and decorations of its own worship while that of the other was performed. This was an easy matter for the Theophilanthropists, but not equally so for the Catholics, the emblems of Christianity being in many cases irremovable parts of the building. They were in doubt, too, whether it would not be a profanation to exercise their religion in buildings in which a deistical worship was also offered: antiquity was ransacked for precedents of the conduct of believers in similar circumstances; and, though they resolved at last that it was better to divide the churches with the enemy than be excluded from them altogether, they took many ludicrous precautions to keep themselves and their sacred furniture from pollution: at Nôtre-Dame they resolved that, as the organ was used by the Theophilanthropists, it should never be used in the Catholic service.

These *Théophilantropes* seem not to have been very consistent in assuming an imposing ritual, at the same time that they were constantly declaiming against the idle ceremonies of the Catholic religion. Their readers and orators wore over their common dress, which was to be of a blue colour, a robe of white, with a rose-coloured girdle; in the marriage-service, the contracting parties were to be interlaced with ribbands and garlands of flowers, the extremities of which were held by their relations; and the bride received a ring from the bridegroom, and a medal of union from the head of the family. In their public worship, an altar was decorated with a basket of fruits or flowers, according to the season, as a mark of gratitude to the Supreme Being. Opposite to the altar was a tribune, where the minister, standing and uncovered, recited an invocation, which the audience repeated in a loud voice: this was followed by a moment of silence, during which every one examined his own conduct since the last religious festival, and then took his seat to hear a discourse on morality, or the reading of a chapter from the *Manuel*, relieved at intervals by singing. M. Grégoire acknowleges the general merits of both the moral lessons and the poetry of the Theophilanthropists; for the first, the Scriptures and the writings of all the most eminent philosophers antient and modern were laid under contribution; while the hymn of Cleanthes the Stoic, and the sacred poetry of *J. B. Rousseau* and other French lyric writers, supplied the latter. The greater part of the works circulated in defence of their principles were written by an author named *Chemin*; and *La Reveillière Lépaux*, though he has had the honour of being esteemed their high priest, appears to have had no other connection with them than that of occasionally attending their meetings, and having pronounced a discourse in favour of such a system of worship as that which they adopted: — nor is it established, notwithstanding all that has been asserted, that the public money was expended for the support of their churches or their ministers, though undoubtedly they were countenanced by many leading persons of the government.

It scarcely seems necessary to seek for causes of the decay of this sect. The zeal of its partizans began to decline first in the provinces; and, by an examination of the registers of a society at Bourges, the author has been enabled to chronicle its rise and extinction very exactly. Their first sitting was held in the cathedral, 29th February 1798, and on the following decadi an orator pronounced a discourse on the immortality of the soul, in which he placed Antoninus and Marcus Aurelius in heaven, — '*reste à savoir*,' says the present writer, '*si Dieu a ratifié ces canonizations*;' a question that remains also to be decided respecting many acts of the same kind. On the 30th of April, at the festival of marriage, two doves, as symbols of conjugal affection, were placed on a triangular altar, and carried in procession. At the festival of old age, three officers of the municipality, with drums, went to fasten garlands at the doors of some old men in the city; while a venerable priest was lying in prison, for no other crime than that of his profession. On the same day, the infant-child of *Singer*, an *ex-capuchin*, was presented to the society as a substitute for baptism, *Doreau*, an *ex-curé*, standing god-father. From this time, the registers seem to be chiefly filled with angry remonstrances to the members on the non-payment of their contributions, and their unwillingness to discharge the office of orator. On the 30th of June 1800, the band was found to have decamped, from their salaries not being paid, and the members themselves were obliged to sing; and on the 18th of August, being reduced to seven or eight, they dispersed, and the Theophilanthropic church of Bourges became extinct, two years and a half after its first formation. In about five years, the whole sect had quietly disappeared; the last trace of it being that *Chemin*, already mentioned, made use of their manual as a school-book in a seminary in Paris, where he taught Latin.

The history of Protestantism occupies nearly a hundred pages of the second volume; and the observations which we have already made will enable our readers to judge of the spirit in which this part of the work is written, and of the inferences deduced from it. In the defection of the French Protestants and especially of the ministers of Geneva from the doctrines of Calvin, in the heresy which prevails within and without the English church, in the flat contradiction which those of her ministers who profess to believe her articles give to each other respecting their meaning, and above all in the rapid progress which the Germans have made towards open infidelity, the reverend author sees the strongest confirmation of the predictions of *Bossuet*, and the most decisive proof of the wisdom of remaining in the antient faith. It is some consolation, after the gloomy descriptions and more gloomy anticipations which we here encounter, to be able to reflect that the Protestant countries of Europe are those in which the most affectionate attachment to religion and the most exemplary practice of its duties are displayed; in which the evidences of Revelation are most profoundly studied and most eloquently enforced; in which the rights of conscience and the claims of humanity are most respected; in which the governments are most free, the ecclesiastical establishments most tolerant, and literature and philosophy best protected and honoured. We can safely appeal to M. Grégoire himself whether, as a philanthropist, he could wish to see Prussia and Saxony assimilated to Austria, Geneva to Naples, or England to Portugal and Spain? While Protestants are assured that such an appeal must be answered with a negative, they will feel no alarm though the unrestricted use of reason among them should sometimes lead to scepticism; and no mortification, though their religion had been found no where but in the Bible till the time of Luther.—That we may not be charged with a want of fairness, we shall conclude our extracts with the summing up of the chapter on Protestantism:

> 'The Protestants of our days have nothing but the name in common with those of the sixteenth century. The licentiousness of opinion has almost obliterated those articles of faith which the leaders of the Reformation had transmitted to them, and which on many points approached those of the Catholic church. Collectively considered, the Protestants form two distinct classes: those who reject Revelation, and therefore are incapable of a re-union with the Church of Rome; and the rest, admitting Revelation, subdivided into a hundred different species. We see, then, *Bossuet* completely justified, and his *History of the Variations* admitted by those who are the object of it.
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> 'Protestantism can never again become what it has been, nor can it remain what it is; it gravitates irresistibly towards its end, where it will undergo some new metamorphosis; its constitution contains the elements of its own dissolution; and it will experience the fate of all the sects which have separated themselves from the Catholic church.—The details which I have given respecting it are the result of investigations and conferences with the most distinguished men of different communions, among whom are many that I call my friends. Important facts may have escaped me, and perhaps even erroneous citations may have found their way into my work: but they know the honesty of my intentions, their indulgence will forgive me, and their knowlege will supply my deficiencies. If I have admitted a single expression which can give them pain, I shall be deeply grieved: attached by principle and by feeling to the Catholic church, I find in her bosom, in her doctrine, the duty of loving and doing good to all men, whatever be their country, their colour, or their religion. My heart makes that a pleasure which my religion enjoins as a duty; and, though far removed from Sturges in a multitude of points of doctrine, I acknowlege with him that a want of charity is one of the most disgusting heresies.' (ii. 268.)

In the remainder of this volume, M. GRÉGOIRE gives the history of the Greek church and its sects, of the Samaritans and Jews, of the Jacobeos or Sigillists, (a Portuguese sect distinguished by their peculiar notions respecting the right of a priest to disclose what he hears in confession,) and of the Jezides. The first three articles contain a vast variety of curious information, for which we should look in vain in other works; and the history of the last-mentioned people is so singular, that we should have been almost tempted to believe that some lively traveller had been amusing himself with our credulity, did not the respectable names of *Hyde* and *Niebuhr* appear among the authorities. These sectaries are found in several countries of the East, but particularly among the mountains of Singiar in the middle of the desert which lies to the south of Nisibis, and are supposed to be Kurds by extraction. The great object of their reverence is the Devil, whom they call *Celabi*, My Lord; and they regard him as only a minister out of place, whose turn may come again, when he may prove a valuable *friend at court* to those who treated him kindly during his disgrace. Such is their respect for him, that they do not pronounce his name, nor even use words which in sound resemble it; and, should a traveller inadvertently curse him, he would run a great risk of being killed on the spot: they have even been known to prefer death when they had fallen into the hands of the Turks, to a profanation of his name. They pay homage to the Christian saints who have given their appellations to the monasteries with which their country abounds, but they do this as believing them to have been inspired by the Devil. They seem to have mixed fragments of Christianity, Mohammedanism, and Paganism together; and their *Celabi*, we have little doubt, if the matter were more carefully examined, would turn out to be not the Devil of our western theology, but the Ahriman of the Magian philosophy, derived to them perhaps through the channel of Manicheism:—their abstaining from spitting on the ground, and the scruple of their priests about destroying life, seem to be traces of superstitions prevalent from time immemorial in the East.

Although we have had occasion to express our dissent on several points from M. Grégoire, we strongly recommend his performance to our readers. The student of modern ecclesiastical history will find it a most valuable repertory of facts and references; the Catholic will perhaps be willing to take a lesson of moderation and liberality from one of his own communion, which he would reject when coming from a Protestant; and the Protestant, while it teaches him to value and to stand fast in the liberty with which the Reformation has made him free, may be induced to soften some of those asperities both of feeling and of language towards the Catholics, which have been perpetuated from the times of mutual persecution, but which cannot be too speedily renounced in these happier days of liberality and conciliation.

ART. X. *Essais sur la Littérature Française, &c.*; *i. e.* Essays on French Literature, for the Use of a Foreign Lady, a Countrywoman of the Author. By M. CRAUFURD. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s. sewed.

FROM the prefixed advertisement, we learn that this work was composed for an English lady who was at Vienna at the same time with the author, in 1798 and 1799. Mr. CRAUFURD visited France at the period of the treaty of Amiens, and was one of the many individuals who were detained there as prisoners of war. The state of affairs, he says, not permitting him to foresee the term of his detention, he employed himself in literary pursuits which he had before projected, but which perhaps he might not otherwise have found inclination to accomplish. Having revised these Essays, he printed towards the end of 1803 a small number of copies to present to a few friends; and he now gives a new edition of them, corrected and augmented, in the hope that it may prove useful to those of his countrymen who are inclined to devote themselves to the study of the French language and literature: but he expressly declares that he by no means wrote for Frenchmen, which would be a presumption quite foreign to his thoughts.

In the performance of the pleasant and instructive task thus imposed on himself, the author has evinced a thorough acquaintance with his adopted tongue; which in some instances is carried so far, that we are almost inclined to deem him too studious of idiom, and even ostentatiously lavish of the peculiar combinations permitted by that fastidious language. The style and manner are French from beginning to end, and not only superior to the far-famed attempt of Sir William Jones, but equal (if we may judge) in correctness and fluency to the productions of Parisians. As a critic, Mr. CRAUFURD has an advantage in his foreign birth, which enabled him to enter on the work unfettered by prejudice and uninfluenced by cabals. In addition to his own observations, he avails himself of the critiques of *Suard*, *Thomas*, and *La Harpe*; the book therefore abounds with curious and amusing citations; and he has added a short notice of the lives of the authors. We regret, indeed, that this part is not rather more extensive; as it is, we are frequently informed only of the year in which the writer was born and the age at which he died; and this new obituary confirms our observation, made at the time when the memoirs of Baron *Grimm* were given to the world, that in point of longevity the advantage is entirely on the side of France. The mean of the age attained by the vast list of persons, whose deaths are recorded in these volumes, would be at least 77; indeed the great number who reach the ages from 80 to 90, and the instances of those who enjoyed a green old age even beyond that term, are with us sufficient proofs of the superior temperance of the people as they were; and the late comparative census of the mortality of children in London and Paris, under five years old, is a full confirmation that the constitutions inherited by a populace unenervated by manufactures, and by the vices of manufacturing towns, are better and more vigorous than those which prevail in a country that professes to subsist by consigning thousands to decrepitude.

In treating of French literature, the author classes the subjects; and, without dilating on the whole, we will proceed to lay before the reader a few examples of his style, and of the kind of information which may be gained from this pleasing publication.

'Logic of *Port-Royal des Champs.*—This is the best work which exists in the French language on this subject.

'To give a just idea of the recluses of Port-Royal, it is necessary to go back to the source of their union. Cornelius Jansenius, Bishop of Ypres, a man of vast erudition and fervent piety, died in 1638, a victim to his virtues, having caught the plague in his humane endeavours to administer temporal succour to his flock. His exemplary life and the circumstances of his death made a great impression in the country in which he lived, and this impression spread readily into the neighbouring districts. On the publication of his posthumous works, the treatise intitled *Augustinus*, or *Doctrina Sancti Augustini*, produced a deplorable schism in the Gallican church. *Antoine Arnaud*, doctor of the Sorbonne, and many other estimable ecclesiastics, were of opinion that this work contained the principles of Saint Augustin, established in the most orthodox and edifying manner. The Sorbonne, however, examined the book, and five of its propositions were condemned: after long discussions, Pope Innocent X. equally condemned them; and the Jesuits, at that time all-powerful in France, rose in arms against the principles attributed to Saint Augustin, and personally against *Arnaud*, with extreme violence and perseverance. They conceived that the propositions attributed to Saint Augustin, by granting too much efficacy to grace, deprived man of the liberty of acting, and were therefore replete with pernicious principles. *Arnaud*, to avoid the machinations of his enemies, retired with his brother *Arnaud d'Andilly* and a few friends into a house belonging to the convent of the nuns of *Port-Royal des Champs*, of which his sister *Angelique* was superior. Many men, distinguished for their virtues as well as their talents, joined their society; and from this retreat they not only defended the principles which they had adopted, but sent into the world several works of the highest merit.

'The adversaries of the Jansenists, however, availed themselves of the fanatical spirit which characterized the latter years of Louis XIVth, to obtain in 1710 an order from this monarch for the dispersion of these recluse scholars, for the destruction of the building, and for exhumation of the bodies there interred; and this order was executed with cruel precision.

'To avoid idleness, all these recluses had either exercised some mechanical art, or laboured in the garden. One of them had chosen the trade of shoemaker, and had taken the name of Brother Francis, according to their custom of being known only by some Christian name. Brother Francis made such progress in his art that he became celebrated in the neighbourhood. His shoes were better made, lasted longer, and were cheaper than others. His trade increased on his hands. The abbess of the convent took a fancy to his shoes; the nuns followed her example; and Mademoiselle *Montbazon,* at that time a boarder in the abbey of Port-Royal, adopting the practice of the rest, honoured him with her custom. Brother Francis took her measure with one knee on the ground, after the manner of shoemakers: but, on touching her delicate foot, beholding the termination of a leg of the finest proportions, and then casting his eyes over a charming figure, he felt unknown emotions rise within him. On returning to Port-Royal, he thought on nothing but the lovely *pensionnaire.* Her well-formed foot, and delicate ancle, pursued him into the church, and haunted him in his dreams. Having made the shoes, he kissed them a thousand times, carried them to the lovely owner, and prepared to try them on. Again with one knee on the floor, and touching her lovely foot, his head grew dizzy, and, bending his other knee to the ground, he suddenly addressed to Mademoiselle *Montbazon* the most pathetic declaration of love. She rose indignant at his conduct; and the nun who accompanied her, treating Brother Francis with the utmost contempt, added threats to reproaches, and ordered him to quit the house for ever. Brother Francis answered that he sincerely loved Mademoiselle *Montbazon,* that his love was honourable, and that he was ready to marry her. They regarded him as a madman: but he added that the Constable *de Luynes* had married one *Montbazon,* and that he was willing to wed her cousin, an honour to which he conceived himself intitled to aspire. The abbess and her nuns complained to the recluses of Port-Royal; who informed them, to their great astonishment, that brother Francis was no other than the Duc *de Luynes,* who from his youth had given himself up to devotion, and from veneration for the members of Port-Royal had retired among them. The proposals of Brother Francis were no longer despised, and he soon afterward married the lovely cousin.'

The above account of the establishment of Port-Royal is curious, and but little known to many readers; while the story which is interwoven with it is diverting enough. It affords also, in the original, a remarkable instance of the author's facility in writing his adopted language. The long day's interview between the President *Hénault* and the Marchioness *du Deffant* is another example of his rapidity in narrative, caught no doubt from the habit of reading French anecdotes and tales, and apparently not inferior to the style of native French *beaux esprits.* It is an oversight, we conceive, to have omitted under the head of *Mémoires* those of *Froissart* and *Monstrelet.*

No country has excelled France in eloquence. The names of *Bossuet*, *Bourdaloue*, *Massillon*, *Fléchier*, and *Saurin*, claim to themselves all the merits of Christian oratory. Of *Bossuet*, *Thomas* says: (Vol. i. p. 250.)

> "No person has ever discoursed of God with equal dignity. The divinity is in his compositions, as in the universe, animating the whole, and moving every thing. In his sublime eloquence, he places himself between God and man, and addresses them by turns. Often he awakens us by the approximation of glory and of misfortune, of the excess of grandeur and the excess of misery. He forces the pride of mortals to the border of the tomb; and, after having humiliated it by this spectacle, he raises it on a sudden by the contrast of mortal man with man disengaged from the world and united to his Creator. Who has spoken better than he of life, of death, of eternity, and of time? These ideas, of themselves, fill the imagination with a species of terror which is not far removed from the sublime. They incline the soul to an austere self-collectedness, which leads it to despise the objects of life as unworthy of itself, and seems to detach it from the universe. Through a succession of sentiments which bear him onwards, *Bossuet* from time to time pronounces only a few words, and these words make the hearer shudder; like the interrupted cries which the traveller sometimes hears during the night, in the silence of forests, and which apprize him of some danger that he knoweth not. But what most distinguishes him is the impetuosity of his movements: it is his soul which mingles with all that he says. He appears from the summit of an elevated spot to discover great events passing beneath his eyes, and to recount them to men who listen to him below. As the style is only the representation of the emotions of the soul, his elocution is strong and rapid. He creates his expressions as well as his ideas. He forces the words to follow them; and, instead of bending to the language, he governs and directs it: it became the slave of his genius, but only to acquire new grandeur. He alone is possessed of the secret of his language: its features are antique and lofty, of an unpolished but hardy nature. We might paint his ideas, if painting were as creative as his language."

Yet not the impetuous eloquence of *Bossuet*, nor that of *Fenelon* flowing like a clear and limpid stream over meadows on which the eye delights to rest, nor the forcible and manly exposition of vice and folly drawn by *Bourdaloue*, nor the charm of the harmonious and copious *Massillon*, nor the pathos of *Cheminais*, supported and recommended by the even tenour of virtuous and Christian lives, had power to stem the tide of luxury and vice in a servile and abandoned court. The preachers preached, but corruption still retained its seat. —The people, it is true, appear to have been frank, loyal, and good, and the Parisians might in general have improved beneath the eye of their Christian monitors: but those who had for a time breathed the impure air of Versailles heard a sermon as they would have heard a play, merely to criticise or admire, to be amused or be *ennuyé*, or any thing but made better. Not that infidelity had begun to sap the foundations of moral goodness, but that the seduction of a dissolute court was too strong to be checked by any eloquence or any example. It is true that occasionally, in imitation of Madame *de la Vallière*, illustrious sinners became as illustrious in their penitence; and minds satiated with dissipation fled from the void which it had left into cloisters and monasteries. It is equally true that, under the superintendence of their eloquent and benign pastors, these places of religious retreat, which are sometimes rather worse than useless, were the real asylums and soothers of many who smarted from the world's unkindness, of many who had been victims to the wiles and artifices which made society dangerous, of the broken in heart, of repining youth, and of comfortless old age. Still, we repeat, neither the eloquence nor the examples of the four greatest orators of Christianity, who have existed since the time of the apostles, ever had a salutary influence on the court.

"The middle of the eighteenth century" (says *La Harpe**) "was marked by three great undertakings, the *Esprit des Lois*, the *Histoire Universelle*, and the *Encyclopédie:* three works that appeared nearly at the same time, but which differed in their character and design, although all three pertained to the philosophical spirit of which I am to follow the progress and mark the effects. The second of these three productions, which of itself belongs to the physical sciences, would be foreign from our observations, if the author, who united to the acquirements of the naturalist the talents of the writer, did not demand from us, in this character, the tribute which every Frenchman owes to such a man as *Buffon*, whose name is one of the titles of our national glory. I leave it to the learned in that science to investigate his rank in it: but all must grant that he embellished its language; and his hypotheses, which no longer seduce any body, detract nothing from the merit of his style: which, in the descriptive and historical part of his work, has ever charmed his readers, of whom the greater part scarcely know that he has misled them, or are careless about the deception. He ranks in the small number of original writers, who have impressed on the idiom which they employed the character of their genius, while they appropriated it to new subjects. Many authors had written on natural philosophy: but *Buffon* was the first who enriched the French language with the stores of that philosophy, without corrupting or denaturalizing the one or the other. — The historian of nature is, like nature, noble, fruitful and majestic, but not always equally varied."

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* In his History of the Philosophy of the Eighteenth Century.

This last remark is particularly just. His fault is monotony. He is always excellent, but his excellence is in need of variety. With this single defect of style, of all men he least merits the character conferred on him by *Voltaire*;

"*Dans un style ampoulé parlez nous de physique.*"

"His character and his conduct in the world" (continues *La Harpe*) "accorded perfectly with that decided aversion which he expressed for modern philosophers. He neither feared nor admired them; the consideration in which he was held not only in France but in Europe equalled his renown. He was honoured by the government, and in return was attached to it by principle and gratitude. The agitations of an intriguing and sneering party in no respect suited the laborious and dignified but peaceful tenor of his life, which fixed him in the Royal Garden of plants, where he was a kind of sovereign, and where he enjoyed himself for thirty years in the tranquil satisfaction of adding to its treasures: to him it is that the garden and museum owed their order and magnificence. Enriched by his labours and by royal munificence, he enjoyed in peace all that can surround a happy and honourable old age; he seldom went abroad, and never quitted Paris, but in the summer, when he went to his beautiful estate at *Montbad*, again to seek the same enjoyments that engrossed his attention in the city. There are few men whose social existence have done more honour to letters. The esteem which he inspired was owing to his prudence in avoiding all the literary or other scandal of the times. *Voltaire* made more noise, as the organ of daily opinion, but the public respect was wholly on the side of *Buffon*.

"His figure, his air, his manner, and his old age, of which he had scarcely any sign but grey hairs, — every thing in him — was noble and impressive at first sight, and recommended the simplicity of his language and conversation, which would otherwise have appeared rather beneath his reputation. He left a large fortune, to be enjoyed by a son distinguished for good and amiable qualities: but scarcely had he become possessed of it when the Revolution, which awaited his father's death, destroyed the son, the tomb, the statue, and the inheritance of *Buffon*."

The first poet who purified the French language, harmonized the verse, and gave to it that colour and consistency which have remained to this day with but little variation, was *Malherbe*. The contrast which his lines present with the comparatively barbarous and grotesque idiom of *Marot* is the more striking, because only nine years intervened between the death of *Marot* and the birth of *Malherbe*. The following verses of the latter poet may be cited as among the first examples of noble and sublime French poesy:—they were written in honour of Henry the Fourth, who had just re-established public tranquillity after the horrors of a civil war; and the poet addresses his prayer to God:

" *Conforme donc, Seigneur, ta grâce à nos pensées;*
Ote-nous ces objets qui, des choses passées,
Ramènent à nos yeux le triste souvenir;
Et comme sa valeur, maîtresse de l'orage,
À nous donner la paix a montré son courage,
Fais luire sa prudence à nous l'entretenir.
La terreur de son nom rendra nos villes fortes;
On n'en gardera plus ni les murs ni les portes;
Les veilles cesseront au sommet de nos tours;
Et le peuple, qui tremble aux fureurs de la guerre,
Si ce n'est pour danser, n'aura plus de tambours.

* * * * * * *

Nous ne reverrons plus ces fâcheuses années,
Qui pour les plus heureux n'ont produit que des pleurs.
Toute sorte de biens comblera nos familles;
La moisson de nos champs lassera nos faucilles,
Et les fruits passeront la promesse des fleurs."

Of all the French poets, *La Fontaine* was possibly the most dependant in circumstances. Having, much to his honour, but much against his interest, defended to his utmost the unfortunate *Fouquet*, he lost the favour of the court, and, destitute of private property, his only resources were patronage and his own genius. Recommended by his talents alone, he had apartments and a table allowed him for twenty years in the house of Madame *de la Sablière*: but, on the death of this virtuous and generous benefactress, he found himself without a home. As he was taking leave of the house in which he had experienced such kindness and hospitality, he met his friend M. *Hervart*, a rich farmer-general, who was in a carriage, and who desired him to stop. "I am delighted," said he to *La Fontaine*, "to meet you; I have heard of your misfortune, and I was going to request that you would come and live at my house."—"I was going thither," said *La Fontaine*; words that did honour to both, and particularly from the perfect simplicity with which they were spoken by *La Fontaine*. In comparing this writer with his great prototype, we are at a loss to decide whether *Boccaccio*, *La Fontaine*, or Nature, possesses the mastery.—It is to be regretted that he has indulged in pleasantry so frequently at the expence of decency: but the same objection may be urged against Aristophanes, Lucian, *Boccaccio*, *Rabelais*, *Voltaire*, Swift, Sterne, Fielding, — in a word, against almost every great wit, with the exception of *Cervantes* and *Moliere*; and even the latter at times touches on indecorum, lightly indeed, but sufficiently for his purpose.

> " To mention the word FABLE," says M. *de la Harpe*, " is to name *La Fontaine*. The style and the author are one. Æsop, Phædrus, Pilpay, Avienus, had written fables: but he comes and seizes them all; and these fables are no longer those of Æsop, Phædrus, Pilpay, and Avienus: they are the fables of *La Fontaine*.
>
> " He has so forcibly impressed his own character on his writings, and his character is so amiable, that he has converted his readers into friends. They must adore that *bonhommie* which has become with posterity one of his distinctive attributes; — a vulgar word, indeed, but ennobled in favour of two uncommon men, Henry IV. and *La Fontaine*. *The Good Man* is the name which has remained to him, as we say of Henry IV. the *Good King*. Such denominations, consecrated by time, are the most sure and authentic titles; they express the general opinion, as proverbs convey the experience of ages."

Our observations on *La Fontaine* should in chronological accuracy have succeeded the little which we have to say on *Peter Lemoine*, of whom *Boileau* remarked most pertinently that he was too mad to be commended, and too poetical to be censured. Impartial judges have discovered in his poem of *Saint Louis* a mixture of beauties with gigantic figures, antitheses carried to their utmost point, extravagant thoughts, and exaggerated expressions. The subsequent passages are scarcely surpassed by any poet since his time. Having made the Sultan of Egypt descend into those subterraneous places which are destined to preserve the bodies of his ancestors, he says:

> " *Sous les pieds de ces monts taillés et suspendus,*
> *Il s' étend des pays ténébreux et perdus,*
> *Des déserts spacieux, des solitudes sombres,*
> *Faites pour le séjour des morts et de leurs ombres.*
> *Là sont les corps des rois et les corps des sultans,*
> *Diversement rangés selon l'ordre des temps.*
> *Les uns sont enchâssés dans de creuses images,*
> *À qui l'art a donné leur taille et leurs visages;*
> *Et dans ces vains portraits qui sont leurs monumens,*
> *Leur orgueil se conserve avec leurs ossemens.*
> *Les autres, embaumés, sont posés en des niches*
> *Où leurs ombres, encore éclatantes et riches,*
> *Semblent perpétuer, malgré les lois du sort,*
> *La pompe de leur vie en celle de leur mort.*
> *De ce muet sénat, de cette cour terrible,*
> *Le silence épouvante, et la face est horrible.*

Là sont les devanciers avec leurs descendans:
Tous les règnes y sont, on y voit tous les temps;
Et cette antiquité, ces siècles dont l'histoire
N'a pu sauver qu' à peine une obscure mémoire,
Réunis par la mort en cette sombre nuit,
Y sont sans mouvement, sans lumière, et sans bruit."

Mr. Craufurd justly observes that for a man who lived in the time of *Lemoine*, for a man of his profession, in a word for a Jesuit, the ensuing lines are extremely curious:

"*Dieu, comme le soleil, remplit de ses bontés*
Les lieux déserts non moins que les lieux habités.
* * * * * * * *
Il n'est rien que sa main n'élève et ne cultive,
Rien qui sous ses regards et dans son sein ne vive.
Celui qui s'est soumis au culte de la croix,
Celui qui du Talmud suit les bizarres loix,
Le Maure, le Païen, le Turc, et le Brachmane,
Le pur et le souillé, le saint et le profane,
Sujets à sa conduite et nourris par ses soins,
Le trouvent toujours prêt à remplir leurs besoins.
Il conserve son calme au milieu des mosquées,
De l'encens qui se brûle aux démons, offusquées,
Sans dépit, de sa main il soutient les autels
Des serpents et des chats *adorés des mortels.*
Aux courses du pirate il prête ses étoiles,
Il lui prête les vents qui remplissent ses voiles;
Et la mer, comme lui, sert sans distinction
Le dévot de la Mecque et celui de Sion."

No nation has ever equalled the French in the delicacy of their madrigals and smaller pieces. Many of them are on light and some on tender subjects, and all of the better sort are devoted to the expression of a happy idea, consecrated by all the magic of numbers and of poetry. We have frequently had occasion to select many of them; and the mere English reader has had a number of them beautifully translated for him in the *Illustrations* to Mr. Bland's "Collections from the Greek Anthology:" which we have so frequently and copiously rifled, that we dare not now take the opportunity of quoting any more of them, in juxta-position with the originals as given in the volumes before us.

In comedy, strictly speaking, the French are at once the models and the despair of nations. While our two great theatres present a motley list of entertainments, from the Ghost of flesh and blood, who at the command of the gallery fills the chair, to Mother-Goose, the rope-dancer, REAL horses, and real nonsense of all kinds, to supply the place of the one great *deficit*, real wit, the *Théatre François* is allotted exclusively to comedy, without any admixture of farce, and to tragedy worthy of its name: — burlesque, grimace, and buffoonery are banished to the Boulevards; — and music has its appropriate theatres at the grand opera and the opera of *Fedan.* The consequence of this subdivision of talent is the concentration of all practicable perfection at each individual resort; and the credit of a theatre is not supported by one actor, but by the united excellence of many. We forbear from entering on the subject of their great writers for the theatre. The effect which they produce in the closet is possibly known to most of our readers: but that effect is increased *ad infinitum* by representation, because the representatives are usually more than equal to the task which they severally undertake.

The French are rich to abundance in the *mémoires pour servir à l'histoire;* and, if they are not so rich in the whole history of their nation, the deficiency is owing partly to the prevalence of feudality up to an age so very much later than the date of its abolition with us, and hence to the want of union and a point of action from which the events of the age might emanate, and to which they might be referred. Although under a monarchy, they were as much divided as the states of antient Greece or modern Italy; and, as we conceive that no reader of Mitford or of *Sismonde* can clearly keep together the circumstances of their narratives, so we should apprehend that the same confusion would be the result of any attempt to lay the contemporary histories of the states and dukedoms of France under one connected plan of history. However, the life, spirit, and correctness of their historical memoirs more than compensate for this unavoidable loss. Of their trouveurs, troubadours, and romancers, we have formerly spoken at some length. It is rather singular that, in the earlier ages, the works of fancy were all more or less the receptacles of indecency; and *Voltaire* has somewhere observed that the romances of Madame *de la Fayette* were the first that described with grace the manners of honest people and natural adventures.

Though we have not yet analyzed one-half of this amusing and instructive publication, we must now close it, with many thanks to the author for such an addition to our resources of rational enjoyment; with high praise of his mastery of a foreign and difficult language; and with equal commendation of the impartial and candid spirit with which his researches have been conducted. If French literature has its weakness, it is in the higher branches of poetry. In historical memoirs, in eloquence of the pulpit, in theatrical pieces, in amorous, tender, and witty poesy, in the epistolary style, in biography, in those nervous and close combinations which make their language the language of logic, in voyages and travels, and of late in most of the sciences, our neighbours are eminently successful; and they are so because they bring into the field a degree of application, without which their natural talents could never have arrived at eminence in every career of intellect and investigation.

Art. XI. *Tableau Politique de l'Allemagne*, &c.; *i. e.* A Political View of Germany. By C. A. Scheffer. 8vo. pp. 106. Paris. 1816.

The political state of Germany, at least of the enlightened part of Germany, highly deserves the attention of those who mark the effects of knowlege and improved education in disseminating an ardour for the enjoyment of liberty. During the last century, that empire has made a rapid progress in improvement; and, if it be fortunate enough to keep free from intestine discord, it will ere long take the lead even of France in all that requires attentive, profound, and long continued study. Commerce, manufactures, the elegant arts, and literature, all fall under this very comprehensive denomination, and may be cultivated in a future age on the banks of the Elbe with a success that will equal their present extent on those of the Thames. Fortunately, we have now learned enough to know that the prosperity of one country forms no deduction from the welfare of another; and that, if we expect to find in a foreign land purchasers of our exported commodities, we must first await the acquisition of capital on the part of our neighbours. Under this impression, we cannot but cordially join in a wish for the introduction of representative governments in the different states of Germany; and for the progressive attainment, by the inhabitants, of all those advantages which we have ourselves experienced from a restriction of the abuses of power, and from a decided participation by the people in the management of their concerns. The diffusion of these advantages over the Continent would be found the best means of fixing the balance of power, and of saving in future those ruinous appeals to arms, the great burden of which is sure, sooner or later, to fall on this island.

No two countries can be more different in point of learning, and even of civilization, than Northern and Southern Germany. The latter has always been of the Catholic faith, and backward in every kind of information; while the princes of the former are almost all Protestant, and have made a point of exerting themselves to assist the progress of science in their respective states. The territories of Hesse-Darmstadt, Weimar, and Saxe-Gotha, have been for a long time the hot beds of study, and have enjoyed in all its extent the liberty of the press. The case was the same in various free towns of the empire, and it must be allowed that in general the German universities were constituted on a footing of great liberality. The professors and rectors of these seminaries were commonly the depositaries of jurisdiction over the students; and, notwithstanding their aristocratical prejudices in most things, they acknowleged, in awarding academical honours, no other distinction than that of talents. This laudable impartiality has been farther promoted by a late regulation, which abolishes all local denominations founded on the birth-place of the young men, and directs that all the students shall be described by the comprehensive name of Germans. The French Revolution was hailed, in its promising days, with great ardour in the north of Germany; and, had that country possessed a metropolis which, like Paris, influenced the empire at large, it admits perhaps of little doubt that an attempt would have been made to imitate that grand experiment in politics; though it would, in all probability, have been conducted so as to escape the horrors of the Gallic conflict.

From these promising appearances, the great deduction is the divided condition of the empire, the strength of which is frittered down into a number of petty states and principalities. Germany and Italy are the only countries of Europe which have not been fortunate enough to combine, in the progress of ages, their detached members into one extensive government; or to avoid those interferences of powerful neighbours which are the natural consequences of separate interests and internal jealousies. Accordingly, the progress of improvement in Germany has been marked by very serious struggles; first by the thirty years' war, which ended in the peace of Westphalia and secured the independence of the Protestants; and, in the last century, by that sanguinary struggle which terminated in the aggrandizement of Prussia, and, by affording a *point de ralliement* to the lesser princes, rendered the rank of Emperor little more than an empty title.

A nation in this advancing state of civilization was not likely to submit quietly to the oppression of *Bonaparte*, however it might differ from the Spaniards in the mode of asserting its deliverance. Instead of plundering his convoys or assassinating his detached soldiers, the Germans formed secret but numerous associations for the purpose of cherishing a patriotic spirit among themselves, and of seizing the first moment for making a vigorous effort to break their chains. No sooner had the disasters in Russia opened a door to hope, than Prussia with one accord took up arms, and displayed exertions which rival the sacrifices of the most enthusiastic republicans of antiquity. This example was followed by other states, as soon as the decided conduct of Austria turned the chances of success on the side of the allies; and the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine, such as the King of Wirtemberg and the Grand Duke of Baden, while they levied forces ostensibly for the support of *Bonaparte*, were in secret making arrangements to direct their arms against their oppressor. The great sacrifices made by the German nation at this time were the result of two causes; — their hatred of French tyranny, and the repeated promises of their own courts to give them a free constitution. How lamentable was the falling off when it became time that the latter should be fulfilled? Could any thing be more calculated to excite disappointment than the proceedings of the Congress of Vienna, which took such little account of the claims of the people, and occupied itself so much with the personal interests of the governors? Subjects were transferred from one prince to another by thousands and tens of thousands, without any consideration of the feelings or predilections of the people. It was on this occasion that the states of Prussia sent a deputation to the King, to demand the accomplishment of his promise; and the answer given was not a refusal, but an assurance that, of the "various plans hitherto proposed, none had been found sufficiently liberal to meet the wishes of the prince" !!

It was at this time, also, that the contest between the King and the States of Wirtemberg began to take a serious aspect. That sovereign had availed himself of the alliance of *Bonaparte* to suspend, in 1805, the session of the representative body, and to absorb all power in his own hands: but financial distress obliged him, in 1814, to call a meeting of the States, and to propose to them a new constitution, which was found so inferior to the former as to be rejected without a dissenting voice. The King, in consequence, dissolved his parliament: but the conduct of the latter was so openly approved by his subjects at large, and so many addresses were subscribed in their favour, that it became necessary to re-assemble the representative body, and to appoint commissioners for the adjustment of the matters in dispute. These were, by no means, in a favourable train, when the death of the last and the accession of the present sovereign removed a grand difficulty, and opened the prospect of an eventual accommodation; which, it is said, has now taken place.

The Bavarian government has shewn equal reluctance in acknowleging a representative body, and has probably been induced to seek, in its late alliance with Austria, a support against the claims of a very respectable part of its subjects. The Palatinate, the districts of Franconia, and other northern portions of the kingdom, demand an improved constitution: but Bavaria Proper is inhabited by a race of beings too ignorant to distinguish one form of government from another, and too insensible to desire a change of any kind. The case is entirely similar with regard to the Austrians; to such a degree, indeed, that M. SCHEFFER repeatedly expresses a hope that the court of Vienna will not be allowed to influence in any manner the affairs of the north of Germany. Her ideas at present are altogether those of military government and absolute sway; and ages must elapse before her subjects become capable of extended or liberal views.

M. SCHEFFER had therefore no expectations from Austria, and experienced no disappointment at her conduct: but it gave him much pain to draw a negative conclusion with regard to the intentions of the Court of Prussia. The final overthrow of *Bonaparte* in 1815 put its sincerity to the test; and one of its first acts was to spread discouragement among the advocates of liberty, by suppressing those very societies which it had called forth when in want of zealous and courageous defenders. The removal in the last year of General *Gneissenau* from his command was another very unfavourable symptom; that officer having been particularly zealous in forming the *landwehr*, and in sanctioning the popular efforts for an improved constitution. Baron *Stein* has been dismissed from his public employments for a similar reason; and even *Justus Gruner*, the inveterate enemy of *Bonaparte*, has been translated from a post of efficiency and importance to the comparatively insignificant charge of Prussian envoy to the Swiss cantons.*

Amid all these disappointments, M. SCHEFFER finds some consolation in the conduct of the lesser princes, such as the Dukes of Hesse Darmstadt, Saxe Weimar, Nassau, and a few others; who have granted their subjects both the unrestricted liberty of the press and the establishment of a representative body. One of these princes, the Grand Duke of Saxe Weimar, has lately endeared himself doubly to his subjects by reducing his military establishment to the number absolutely necessary to occupy the fortified stations, and maintain public tranquillity. How different is this from the conduct of those petty sovereigns in his neighbourhood, who place their vanity in the support of an overgrown military force; or who, like the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel, seem disposed to pursue vindictively all who took part in the short-lived dominion of the French!

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* Since the above was written, the case with regard to Prussia seems to be somewhat improved, according to the reports in the news-papers; a council of state having been called together in a way that opens a tolerably fair prospect.

The Grand Duke of Baden, without going so far as directly to refuse a new constitution, has discountenanced the application of his subjects by his evasive and dilatory conduct. In Saxony, too, much as the inhabitants desire a constitution on liberal and well defined grounds, no steps are taken and no impatience is expressed, on account of the veneration entertained for the aged monarch and the confidence in the well-known mildness of the reigning family.

Such is the state of political feeling through this very interesting portion of the European commonwealth. We are now to travel for a moment out of German ground, and to make a few remarks on the general merits of M. SCHEFFER's pamphlet, as well as on his estimate of the neighbouring governments. In his ardour for the cause of liberty, he exhorts his countrymen to turn their eyes with confidence to the present government of France. He has no doubt that the Bourbons are sincere in their professions of attachment to the *Charte Constitutionelle*, in which case the French nation may be considered as already enjoying almost all that Germany is desirous of acquiring: but he augurs ill, as far as the rights of the people are concerned, from the personal intimacy between the sovereigns of Russia and Prussia; and as to England, while he admires our constitution, he seems to entertain an extraordinary distrust of the projects of our ministers. They have, he declares, no other object than that of 'playing a political game, keeping the different courts of the Continent in their dependence, and preventing the diffusion of trade and manufactures among the inhabitants.' Such notions might be excusable in a credulous Frenchman of the school of *Bonaparte*, but must appear not a little extraordinary in a German, and a man of letters; and we can account for them only by ascribing to the author a large portion of the prejudices of those with whom he has associated, since he fixed his residence to the west of the Rhine. We must add that various passages in the pamphlet confirm this charge of deficient sagacity, and oblige us to restrict and qualify the favourable part of our critical testimony. M. SCHEFFER is evidently one of those who, in his eagerness to carry a favourite point, overlooks the attendant difficulties, and takes it for granted that the great political mistakes which have once occurred are not likely to be repeated. According to him, the French Revolution has prevented the danger of a future abuse of liberty, as completely as if it had possessed the magic power of effecting a radical change in the constitution of human nature.

ART. XII. *Dictionnaire de Medecine,* &c.; *i.e.* A Dictionary of Medicine, and of the Sciences connected with Medicine; with the Etymology of every Term, and two Vocabularies, one Latin, the other Greek. By P. H. NYSTEN, M.D., Member of various Societies, &c. 8vo. pp. 700. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s. sewed.

IT appears from the preface that M. NYSTEN commenced this dictionary in conjunction with his friend M. *Savary*, but that they had proceeded only as far as the letter C when the sudden death of the latter deprived the work of the benefit of his co-operation. The author professes his object to be to produce a lexicon which should be in French what those of Castellus and Blanchard were in Latin, when they were published. Certainly, the great discoveries which have been made in medicine and the medical sciences, during the last few years, and even the changes which have been introduced into their nomenclature, rendered some new dictionary indispensably necessary; and it seemed, on the whole, more desirable to compose it entirely afresh, than to be encumbered with one which, however excellent at the time of its appearance, must now be entirely obsolete in many of its parts.

The present work undertakes to give the meaning of all medical terms derived from the antient languages, as well as those which have been established by modern authors. The genera of diseases, admitted by nosologists, are introduced in their appropriate situations; and under these the species and varieties are enumerated and briefly characterized. In chemistry and pharmacy, both the new and the old names are given; in the hygieine, in botany, and in the *materia medica,* the most approved authors of the French school are mentioned as the sources of information; and the same manner is followed with respect to all points connected with zoology or natural history in general. The whole is comprehended in one thick and closely printed octavo volume; and, whatever may be our judgment respecting the value of its contents, it must be allowed to be a very honest book as far as the quantity of matter is concerned.

Since the author, as we have seen above, refers us to Castellus for a term of comparison, we are naturally induced to keep his work in our minds while we examine that of M. Nysten, in order to pass our judgment on it. The number of articles is about the same in the two productions; the new words which are introduced into the French being nearly equivalent to those which have been discarded as obsolete or useless. The total quantity of matter is, however, greater in the Latin author; and, with respect to quality, we conceive also that the advantage lies on his side. Making all due allowance for the period at which he wrote, he displays certainly more learning and conveys more actual information; and, which is very important, he gives much more frequent references to the original writers, whence a farther account of the subject may be derived. M. Nysten is indeed very defective on this point, which should be a main consideration with every compiler of a scientific dictionary. The limits to which he is confined cannot permit him to do more than give a definition of the objects, with a very brief description of them: but it is an office incumbent on him to inform the reader where a more ample detail may be found. Castellus manifests a thorough acquaintance with the writings of his predecessors, both antient and modern; displays a considerable share of critical acumen and learned research; and accurately states the authorities on which he advances his opinions. In this respect, M. Nysten is certainly inferior to his precursor; although we admit that there may be other merits, and other claims on our attention, which stamp a considerable value on a medical dictionary. We shall now quote a few articles, in order to enable our readers to form their own judgment; and we shall take the words as they present themselves to us, on opening different parts of the volume.

'Abdomen, s. m. A Latin word derived from *abdere*, to conceal; ητρον in Greek.—*Anatomy*. The largest of the three visceral cavities, otherwise called the *lower-belly*. It is bounded above by the diaphragm, below by the pelvis, behind by the lumbar vertebræ, and on the sides and front by many muscular plains, which have taken their names from it. Three anterior regions are distinguished in it from above downwards, viz. the epigastric, the umbilical, and the hypogastric; each of which is itself divided into three others, one middle and two lateral. Thus the epigastric region comprehends the epigastrium itself and the two hypochondria; the umbilical region comprehends the umbilicus and the sides; and the hypogastric region, the hypogastrium itself and the iliac recesses. In the back part, the middle region is named the loins; and the lateral, the lumbar regions. None of these regions have well defined limits. The viscera contained in the abdomen are the stomach, the intestines, the liver, the spleen, and the *pancreas*. The bladder, especially when it contains urine, projects *sensibly* into it. In the female, the uterus is equally contained in this cavity. — *Natural History.* In all the mammiferæ, the abdomen possesses the same disposition of parts as in the human species, and is the same as we have been describing: but in birds it communicates with the chest, in consequence of the absence of the diaphragm; in reptiles, it is entirely confounded with it; in fish, the heart is separated from the other viscera by a strong membrane; in the mollusca, and the animals of an inferior order, no separation occurs. In insects, the word *abdomen* is applied to the fourth and last portion of the trunk.'

'Absorption, s. f. *absorptio*, from *absorbere*, the root of which is *sorbere*, to drink up. An action peculiar to certain bodies, by virtue of which they attract and cause to enter into themselves any fluid or minutely divided solids. — *Chemistry.* The action by which one substance penetrates another, without changing very materially the properties of the last. In this manner, we admit the absorption of air by water, and reciprocally of water by air. — *Physiology.* The function by which organized and living beings take into their pores, or into vessels destined for this purpose, certain substances which come from without, or which are received into their interior. — *Cutaneous absorption,* the absorption which prevails on the surface of the skin. — *Absorption of medicines,* the absorption of any medicinal substance.'

'Chyle, s. m. *chylus*, χυλος. This word signifies, in Greek, every species of juice or of liquor extracted from plants or from animals. Hippocrates employs it to designate *the ptisan,* which is a decoction of barley. Galen has applied it to the fluid which is the immediate result of digestion, on account of the gross resemblance which it bears to this decoction. The chyle is, then, a whitish fluid which proceeds from the digested aliments, and which is conducted to the thoracic canal by a peculiar order of vessels, after having undergone a fresh elaboration in the glands of the mesentery. Like the blood, it is composed of a serous and a fibrous part.

'Chyme, s. m. *chymus*, from χυμος, juice. We cannot ascertain the difference which the Greeks made between χυμος and χυλος; but modern physiologists mean by *chyme* a sort of greyish homogeneous mass, formed by the alimentary matter after it has been submitted to the digestion of the stomach. It is from this mass that the *chyle* proceeds. (See this word.) It appears, from Castellus, that the antients employed the words *chyme* and *chyle* precisely in the inverse sense to that in which they are employed at this day.'

'Croup, s. m. a word of Scotch origin, by which we designate a species of angina that almost exclusively affects children, and is characterized by a peculiar affection of the voice, most commonly by the production of a false membrane in the respiratory passages. This disease has been also named *cynanche stridula* (Wahlbom), *angina suffocatoria* (Bard), *angina trachealis* (Rush), *morbus strangulatorius* (Starr), *angina membranacea sive polyposa* (Michaelis), &c.; and in French, *angine trachéale, angine membraneuse,* &c.'

'Organic, adj. *organicus*; is said of bodies which act by means of organs. Among natural bodies, there are only animals and vegetables that are *organic* or *organized*. *Organic life* (see LIFE). *Organic diseases: Sauvages*, at the end of his nosology, in classing maladies according to their etiology, makes a class of organic diseases; and he gives this name to the affections which depend on the disposition, form, size, and displacement of the solid parts. We find in this class different diseases which do not belong to those that are called *organic lesions* by M. *Pinel* and the modern physicians. (See ORGANIC LESIONS.) *Organic pulse*, that which refers to any affection of an organ, or rather that which designates and manifests to the senses this affection when developed, or only impending.'

' WOUND, s. f. *vulnus, plaga*, in Greek τραυμα; a recent and generally bloody solution of continuity, made in the soft parts. Wounds are generally divided with respect to the mechanical causes which produce them; 1st, into wounds made by pricking instruments, which are called *punctures*; 2dly, into wounds made by cutting instruments; 3dly, into wounds occasioned by bruizing instruments, which are called *contused wounds;* to which last division *gunshot wounds* belong, such as are produced by bodies set in motion by the aid of gun-powder, as balls, bullets, and shot. Wounds are named *venomous* which are caused by the bite or puncture of any venomous animal, as the viper, the scorpion, and the serpent; or by instruments which introduce any venomous substance into the flesh.'

' PLETHORA, s. f. *plethora*, ϖληθωρα. This word, which signifies *repletion*, is applied to the superabundance of blood in the sanguiferous system, or in a part of this system; whence the division of *plethora* into *general* and *local*. *General plethora* is characterized by redness of the skin, enlargement of the superficial blood-vessels, hardness of the pulse, a troublesome increase of animal heat, a tendency to hæmorrhages, wandering pains, &c. The characters of *local plethora* vary according to the organ which is the seat of them. Drowsiness, vertigo, redness of the eyes and the face, strong pulsation of the carotid arteries, and great swelling of the veins of the neck, indicate congestion of blood in the brain. Dyspnœa, great heat in the chest, &c. indicate plethora of the lungs. The antients distinguished a plethora of the vessels, *plethora ad vasa*, in which the vessels were distended by the abundance of blood; and a plethora of the powers, *plethora ad vires*, in which the quantity of blood, without being great enough to distend the vessels, is sufficient to injure the powers. They also distinguished a *true* plethora and a *false* plethora; the first consists in a real superabundance of blood in the sanguiferous system; the second, *plethora spuria*, without the existence of this superabundance, yet presents, with respect to the morbific disposition of the solids, the symptoms of true plethora. But these distinctions are no longer admitted.'

' LIFE, s. f. *vita*, in Greek βιος; the state of organized bodies which distinguishes them from inanimate bodies. As the natural philosopher and the chemist are obliged to refer all the phænomena which they observe, the one to gravitation, to elasticity, &c., and the other to affinity; so the physiologist must refer all the organic actions, the sum of which constitutes life, to properties called *vital*, which are contractility, sensibility, and caloricity. Life has only a limited duration; beyond which, the organic actions ceasing to continue, the elements of organization obey chemical attractions; this is without doubt the reason which induced *Bichat* to define life to be the union of the functions which resist death; and with respect to the difference which the vital forces exhibit, he has called "*organic life*" the union of the functions which serve for composition and decomposition; viz. digestion, respiration, circulation, exhalation, absorption, secretion, and nutrition;—and *animal life* the union of the functions which place man and other animals in connection with external bodies:—these are the functions of the understanding, the sensations, loco-motion, and the voice.'

We think that it will be unnecessary to multiply specimens of this dictionary, the character of which may be adequately learned from the above quotations. Without any display of genius or erudition, it contains a considerable share of information, clearly expressed and generally correct. As far as we can judge from this publication, M. NYSTEN is little acquainted with any writers except those of his own country; and, in different places, he seems to deem it sufficient to state their opinions as the current doctrines of the age. On the whole, then, we must bestow a certain degree of commendation on this volume, but, at the same time, we must remark that we can easily conceive the possibility of a more perfect work.

ART. XIII. *L'Hermite de la Guiane*, &c.; *i.e.* The Hermit of Guiana; or Observations on French Manners and Habits at the Commencement of the Nineteenth Century. By M. DE JOUY, Member of the French Academy. 12mo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1816. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

WE have already noticed two productions of this lively and agreeable writer, the *Hermit of the Chaussée d'Antin*, (Vol. lxxii. p. 465.) and *William the Free-Speaker*, (Vol. lxxvii. p. 475.) which may be considered as former parts of the present publication. At least, it proceeds with a similar division into papers, or chapters, resembling those of *The Spectator* for length and substance; and it continues to pourtray, in the same natural and faithful manner, the habits, characters, amusements, and conversations of the present Parisians. As the author announces in his preface that he has himself translated this work into English, and is about so to publish it, we shall content ourselves with the notice of the principal topics. A few neat engravings adorn the volumes.

No. 1. relates the Arrival of the imaginary old Gentleman from Guiana; who, after having passed forty-five Years among the Savages of the Oroonoko, returns to his native Country, and stations himself at Paris. — No. 2. describes his Journey, and offers many striking Contrasts between antient and modern Usage. — No. 3. comments on the successive Constitutions of Government. — No. 4. Modern Children. — 5. The Stock-exchange. — 6. The ready-made Linen-warehouse. — 7. A Day beside the Oroonoko. — 8. The Lawyers. — 9. The Fair of Saint-Cloud. — 10. The Booksellers, or rather Bibliographers. — 11. The Aëronauts. — 12. Physicians. — 13. On the fashionable Slang of modern Conversation. — 14. Clothes-women. — 15. My Law-suit. — 16. The Watch-house. — 17. The ambitious Man. — 18. My Law-suit decided. — 19. The Corsairs. — 20. Consolations. — 21. A Boarding-house. — 22. The Indian Jugglers. — 23. Melancholy. — 24. The Theatres. — 25. The Confessions of a young Girl. — 26. The Passengers. — 27. Dictionary of Fashion. — 28. New-year's-day.

Such are the contents of the first volume: we will copy also the table of the second. 29. The Bride's Wardrobe. — 30. Men of Letters. — 31. Songs. — 32. Isle St. Louis. — 33. Two Loves. — 34. Fools. — 35. Actors. — 36. The Heiress. — 37. Correspondence. — 38. A Day on the Banks of the Seine. — 39. Abuses. — 40. The first Communion. — 41. The Artisan at home. — 42. Rehearsal of an Opera. — 43. Men of Letters. — 44. Killing Time. — 45. An insupportable Man. — 46. Dark Transactions. — 47. Mother Redcap. — 48. Imitators. — 49. Sunday. — 50. Funeral. — 51. Macedonia. — 52. Industry. — 53. The Russian Mountains. — 54. University-Prizes.

We are not decidedly of opinion that the author does well to translate his own work. Not every paper is of equal value or interest here, and an English translator would know how to select those which are best adapted for effect, or most likely to be understood, in London. For instance, No. 30., which under feigned names paints living characters, would here lose all its interest. In No. 43. are criticisms in which we do not coincide. *D'Alembert* is placed in the *first* and *Diderot* in the *second* rank of men of letters. The former was a great mathematician, but surely his prose-works are inferior to those of *Diderot*. So *Florian* is degraded to the *third* rank, who deserved a place in the second. We agree, however, entirely in the main argument that the age of Louis XV. or, as it has been well proposed to call it, the *Siècle de Madame de Pompadour*, surpasses in literary greatness the age of Louis XIV. What has that vaunted period bequeathed to posterity that is truly classical? Some tragedies of *Corneille* and *Racine*, some comedies of *Moliere*, some sermons of *Bossuet*; — and what else? Who does not prefer, to the

Provincial Letters of Pascal, *Rousseau*'s Letters from the Mountain; and many even consider the Telemaque of *Fenelon* as inferior to the novels of *Florian*. — *Boileau*,

> " ———, *dont la gloire ici moins répandue*
> *Des pâles envieux ne blesse point la vue*,"

may have excelled his countrymen, but falls short of Pope in a similar line of poetry; and these seven names are all those seven wonders of the world, which the author has to claim for the age of the fourteenth Louis.

Another observation strikes us, that real refinement has even yet penetrated but skin-deep at Paris; and that, viewing its inhabitants class for class, it has by no means acquired the civilization of London.

Art. XIV. *Philosophie de la Technie Algorithmique. Par* Hoené Wronski. 4to. pp. 286. Paris. 1815. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 16s.

Nothing can be desired more unintelligible than the title of this publication; and our readers therefore will probably be surprized to learn that this volume (which forms only the first part of many that are yet in progress) contains 'the supreme and universal law of mathematics, — one general and comprehensive problem, which includes in itself every problem of these sciences.' Such at least are the professions of M. Wronski: but how far he has succeeded we can only surmise; for, it seems, 'no one will be able to comprehend the contents of this first section who has not read the "*Introduction à la Philosophie des Mathématiques et Technie de l'Algorithmie*," which we have not been fortunate enough to see. There are also other works by M. Wronski, of which it would doubtless be highly important to possess a knowlege; viz. *Réfutation de la Théorie des Fonctions analytiques de Lagrange*; *Résolution générale des Equations de tous les Dégrès*; and another on the *Métaphysique du Calcul infinitésimal*.

What might be our opinion of the present performance, were we acquainted with the above treatises, it is impossible to say: but, judging of it from its own merits, its composition and contents, we do not hesitate to affirm that it displays, within the least compass, the greatest number of absurdities and unintelligible expressions that we ever yet saw, or we think ever shall see again, unless we should once more stumble on another section of this great and important undertaking.

After the above declaration of our sentiments, it would perhaps be best to close our remarks and consign M. Wronski and his *Technie* to oblivion: but we cannot refrain from justifying the severity of our censure by one or two selections out of the hundreds of absurdities with which this volume is crowded. The following, perhaps, is one of the most intelligible paragraphs of the whole: it relates to the *necessity of interpolation*:

> 'As to the deduction of the necessity of the methods of interpolation, that is to say, of their indispensible presence in the algorithm, it forms the technic deductions of these methods; and, like the similar deductions of the other technic algorithms, it belongs properly to the transitions from the theory to the techny of the algorithm, explained in our Introduction to the Philosophy of Mathematics. Also, this technic deduction is given in this transition; where, by resuming the different arguments, we shall see that the necessity of the methods of interpolation is founded on the algorithmic finality, which results from the *logical necessity* of the *reflective* function of the judgment, by which we are conducted from particulars to generals, or from facts to laws.' P. 129.

This is simplicity itself compared with many passages which we might have given, had there been any possibility of rendering them into English; and as to isolated expressions, we might fill whole pages with specimens, to which we would defy any one to attach the least signification; for example: the *hetrogeneous finality of speculation; possible and impossible realities;* the *pure absence of reality; le tableau architectonique des mathématiques; fonctions schins, fonctions pies,* &c. &c. Notwithstanding all these learned expressions, and though the author has at length found that supreme law which includes in itself every law of the universe, and of which the celestial mechanics is only a very particular case, yet the *savans* of Paris were so blind to their own interest, that, instead of hailing his discoveries as the *ne plus ultra* of human knowlege, they actually treated them with disdain.

> 'Already, in 1804, we had communicated to *M. le Baron de Zach* the *Absolute Law* of the *Mécanique Céleste*, from which flow all the other laws of the system of the world. But *M. le Baron*, encompassed with his clocks and learned trigonometry, and probably believing himself to be at the summit of the sciences, disdained our communication. This is only one of a thousand times that the titled or commissioned *savans*, by profession, have exercised this ridiculous and unhappily pernicious influence. These *messieurs* alone have done more injury to the progress of truth than all other obstacles united. May we here furnish the last example!' Note, p. 286.

M. Wronski is, we understand, a Pole, who has been long resident in Paris, and who, having found some cause of disagreement with the members of the Institute, has undertaken the task of *writing them down:* in which hopeful scheme he is supported by a rich banker of Paris, who charges himself with all the expences of these adventurous publications.

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